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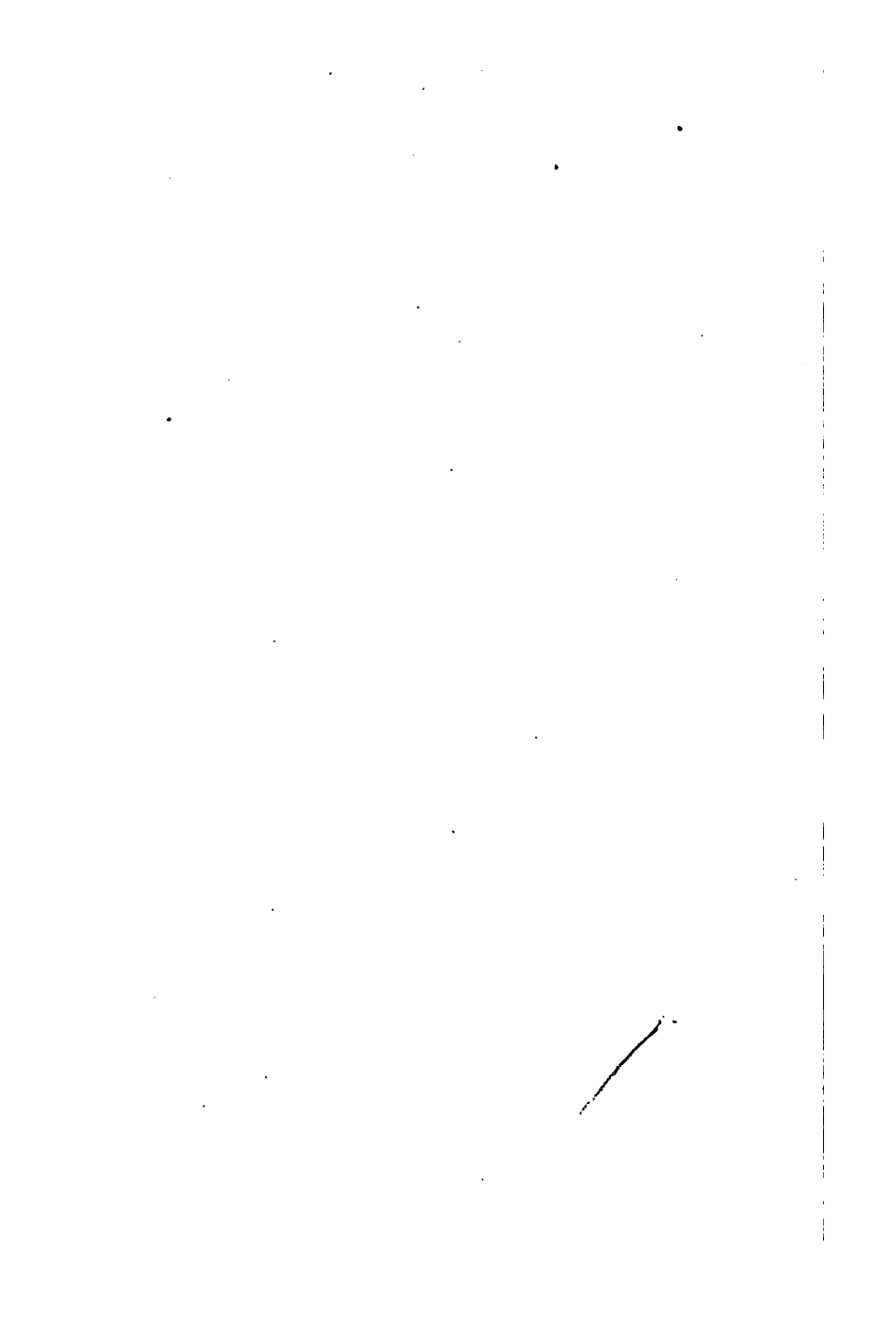
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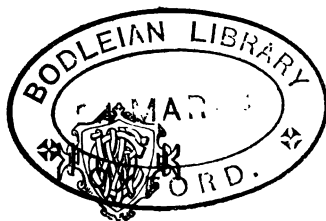
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CHAMBERS'S EDUCATIONAL COURSE

A
SHORT
HISTORY OF ENGLAND

TO THE
DEATH OF GEORGE THE THIRD



W. & R. CHAMBERS
LONDON AND EDINBURGH
1880

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HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

BRITAIN UNDER THE ROMANS.

1. **The Ancient Britons.**—England takes its name from the Angles, a people from Germany, who crossed the North Sea, and took possession of the country. But they were not the first inhabitants; they slew or drove out another people called the Britons. These Britons were a brave and warlike people, belonging, like the inhabitants of ancient France (Gaul), to the Celtic race. The Welsh of the present day are descendants of the Britons, and to the same race belong the Highlanders and Irish.

2. **Condition of the Ancient Britons.**—These ancient Britons, when we first hear of them, had not made much progress in civilisation. They did not cultivate the soil very much, and grew very little corn, most of the country being covered with forest and moor. Their chief food was milk and flesh; they kept large flocks and herds; and there were many wild animals which they slew in the chase. They knew little about the weaving of cloth, and so clad themselves in skins. Pieces of brass or iron of a fixed weight were the only money they had. Their dwellings were miserable huts; the roads, where they had any, were very bad. Kent was the most civilised part; here were towns, a great many people, and fields of corn.

3. **War and Religion.**—The ancient Britons spent a very great part of their time in war; they were divided into many tribes, which were continually fighting with each other. They stained themselves blue with a plant called *woad*, that they might look more terrible in battle. They had war-chariots, which they drove with great skill, leaping out and in, and moving about with great boldness and dexterity. The Britons believed in

many gods, to whom they sometimes offered human sacrifices. They had priests, called Druids, who were also their men of learning, and had great power; and they had bards, who sang the mighty deeds of their forefathers.

THE ROMANS.

4. Julius Cæsar.—The history of England begins with the invasion by the Romans under Julius Cæsar fifty-five years before the birth of Christ. It is from the Romans that we have learned all we know about the Britons. The Romans were the most powerful nation of the world at that time. They had subdued all the countries round the Mediterranean Sea, and indeed all the people of the known world. They were wise, brave, and laborious; so skilled and strong in battle, that no nation could stand before them. Julius Cæsar was the greatest Roman of that time. After conquering the whole of Gaul or ancient France, he resolved to invade Britain, because he said the inhabitants had sent help to his enemies on the other side of the straits.

5. Julius Cæsar invades Britain (55 B.C.).—He landed near the modern town of Deal. The Britons saw the strange ships coming over the sea, and gathered an army to resist him; but they were defeated, and obliged to submit. That year Cæsar did not stay long, and did not advance far into the country. Next year he returned with a far larger army. The Britons fought bravely under their king, Cassivelaunus (Caswallon); but they were defeated in every battle. Cæsar crossed the Thames, and compelled them to submit and to promise to pay tribute. After subduing only a small part of the country, he returned to Gaul.

6. Invasion under Claudius (43 A.D.).—After the departure of Julius Cæsar the Britons saw no more of the Romans for about one hundred years, and they did not pay the tribute they had promised. With the invasion under the Emperor Claudius the permanent occupation of Britain by the Romans begins—that is to say, the Romans subdued a great part of it, kept an army in it, made the Britons pay taxes, and ruled it by a governor, whom the Emperor sent from Rome. The Emperors themselves even often visited Britain. In other words, Britain became a *province* of the great Roman Empire.

7. Caractacus and Boadicea.—But the Britons were a brave people, who loved freedom, and they did not yield to the Romans without a severe struggle. Their great fault was that

they were never united among themselves. One of their heroes was Caradoc, called by the Romans Caractacus, who was king of the Silures in South Wales. He fought long against the Romans, but being overcome in a great battle, was carried captive to Rome. When he saw the magnificence of the city, he asked the Emperor how it was that people who had such wealth and grandeur at home should covet his poor cottage in Britain. Claudius admired the courage of the British chief, and gave him his freedom. Again, while Suetonius, the Roman commander-in-chief, was absent on an expedition to the island of Mona (Anglesey), Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, rose against them. She had been cruelly injured by the Romans, and resolved to have revenge. She burned London, Camulodunum, and other Roman towns, killing all the inhabitants, and defeating a Roman army. At last, the Roman general, Suetonius Paulinus, returned from Mona, and defeated Boadicea with dreadful slaughter. Rather than fall into the hands of her cruel enemies, the British queen poisoned herself (61 A.D.).

8. *Agricola* (78-85 A.D.).—The true conqueror of Britain was the great general Julius Agricola, who was not only a brave soldier, but a wise and good man. He saw that the best way to make the Britons content with the rule of Rome was to treat them kindly and justly. He introduced good laws and the Roman ways of living, which the natives soon found were much better than their own. So the Britons adopted the dress of their conquerors; they got good houses, roads, farms, and grew fond of the comforts and luxuries of Roman life, forgetting their former fierceness and their old freedom. Agricola was also a great warrior. In seven campaigns he advanced as far as the Grampians. He drew a line of forts from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde; and defeated the Caledonian chief Galgacus at Mons Grampius (84 A.D.). He sent a fleet round the north coast, and discovered that Britain was an island. From the Mull of Galloway he saw the coast of Ireland.

9. *The Roman Walls*.—The Romans never conquered the northern part of Britain. There lived the Caledonians in their mountain fastnesses. They could not beat the Romans in open battle, but at every opportunity they rushed down upon the plains, burning and plundering and slaying. To keep them in check and protect the settled parts of the country, the Emperor Hadrian built a wall from the Tyne to the Solway Firth (121 A.D.). The Emperor Antonine raised a wall from the

Forth to the Clyde on the line of Agricola's forts (139 A.D.); this wall was called, after the Emperor, Antonine's Wall, but has in later times got the name of Grime's or Graham's Dike. The Emperor Severus made a great effort to subdue the Caledonians. He marched with a great army as far as the Moray Firth, but it is said, lost 50,000 men in the expedition, and was content at last with ordering Hadrian's Wall to be strengthened. The Emperor Severus died at York soon after (211 A.D.).

10. **Christianity in Britain.**—We know very little about the introduction of Christianity among the Britons, but there is no doubt that it was brought in during the Roman rule. Alban, after whom St Albans is named, is said to have been the first martyr. Constantine the Great, who made the Christian religion the religion of the Roman Empire, was proclaimed Emperor at York (306 A.D.), which was one of the chief towns of Roman Britain.

11. **Departure of the Romans from Britain (410 A.D.).**—After Constantine, Britain had rest for a long time. At length the Roman Empire began to grow weak. Fierce nations from the north and east attacked it, and overran the provinces, so that the legions were all needed to defend Italy itself. Though the Scots and Picts, as the people of the north part of Britain were now called, ravaged the country as far south as London, the Romans could give no help to their former subjects: At last the Emperor Honorius wrote a letter to the Britons telling them to defend themselves. Thus ended the Roman dominion in Britain, after lasting about three hundred and fifty years.

12. **Peaceful Work of the Romans.**—The Romans were great workers as well as great fighters, handling the spade as skilfully as they handled the sword. They have left their mark on every country they conquered, even on Britain. Traces of their great walls, of their wonderful roads (called *strata*, hence our word *street*), of their towns, baths, and of their fortified camps remain to this day. Their camps were called *castra*, from which come such names of towns as Chester, Winchester, Doncaster, Leicester, and Gloucester. They established colonies (*coloniæ*), of which the memory is preserved in Lincoln and Colchester (the ancient Camulodunum). Roman coins are often found. The Romans also taught the Britons to make use of the wealth of the country, to work mines of iron, lead, and tin. These were exported in large quantities; as were also corn, cattle, oysters, and pearls. British dogs were very much prized.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. England, so called from the Angles, who drove out the Britons.
2. The ancient Britons had made little progress in tilling of the soil, in weaving, or in the building of houses.
3. The Britons were a warlike people fighting from chariots; their religion was Druidism.
4. Britain was first conquered by the Romans under Julius Cæsar.
5. First landing of Julius Cæsar..... B.C.
Julius Cæsar lands a second time and defeats Cassivelaunus..... 55
6. The Romans invade Britain in the reign of Claudius..... A.D.
Britain becomes a Roman province..... 43
7. The Romans defeat Caractacus..... 51
Boadicea is defeated and takes poison..... 61
8. Agricola is governor of Britain..... 78-85
He defeats the Caledonians at Mons Grampius..... 84
9. Hadrian builds a wall from the Tyne to the Solway..... 121
The Emperor Antonine builds a wall from Forth to Clyde..... 139
Expedition of Severus; he repairs Hadrian's Wall..... 210
10. Christianity was introduced into Britain during the Roman period. Constantine, the first Christian Emperor, was proclaimed at York..... 306
11. Withdrawal of the Romans from Britain..... 410
12. Roman works; there are traces of great Roman works in Britain, such as walls, roads, towns, camps, and colonies.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. From what people does England take its name? Where did they come from? What people dwelt in England before the Angles? To what race did this people belong? Name some nations in our day that belong to that race.
2. Did the Britons till the soil very much? What was their chief food? Their clothing? What kind of money had they? Their houses? The most civilised part of the country?
3. What was the chief occupation of the Britons? How did they stain themselves? Describe their chariots. Who were the Druids? The bards?
4. From whom do we learn all this about the Britons? When did Julius Cæsar invade Britain? Describe the Romans. What excuse had Julius Cæsar for invading Britain?
5. Where did the Romans land? What was the result of the battle with the Britons? What British king opposed the Romans in their second expedition? How far did Cæsar advance? What did the Britons promise to pay?

6. In whose reign did the Romans invade Britain again? Did the Romans occupy the country? How was it governed?
7. What made it so easy for the Romans to subdue Britain? Who was Caractacus? What happened to Caractacus? Who was Boadicea? Name some of the Roman towns she took. What was the fate of Boadicea?
8. Who was the true conqueror of Britain? How long did he govern Britain? What plan did he take to make the Britons content with Roman rule? How far north did he advance, and where did he defeat the Caledonians? What did he do to protect his conquests?
9. Who were the Caledonians? Where was the Wall of Hadrian? What was the object of Hadrian's Wall? Describe the positions of the Wall of Antonine. Give some account of Severus' expedition. Where did he die, and when?
10. Do we know much about the introduction of Christianity? The name of the first martyr? What is Constantine celebrated for? Where was he proclaimed Emperor?
11. Why did the Romans leave Britain? In what Emperor's reign did the Romans abandon Britain? How long had they occupied great part of it? What people now ravaged the country?
12. Name some of the works the Romans left on the island. The Roman name for a camp? Some towns in which the name appears? The Roman name for a colony? Towns in which the name is preserved? What metals did the Romans work in Britain? Some exports from Britain in the Roman period?

CHAPTER II.

THE ENGLISH CONQUEST (449-600 A.D.).

1. **Wretched State of the Britons.**—After the departure of the Roman legions, the Britons found themselves in a very miserable plight. They had almost totally forgotten the art of war, and were unable to defend themselves against their enemies. The Scots and Picts, breaking in from the north, ravaged the whole country; while the Saxon sea-rovers from the other side of the German Ocean landed on the coast, slaying the inhabitants and carrying off the spoil. In their great despair, the Britons could think of no better plan than to seek the aid of the Saxon invaders. One of their kings named Vortigern agreed with the Saxon chiefs Hengest and Horsa to give them a settlement on the island of Thanet, on condition that they

fought their battles against the Picts and Scots. These chiefs defeated the Picts and Scots; but, seeing the weakness of the Britons, and how good the land was, they determined to conquer it for themselves, and sent word to their countrymen that they should come and help them.

2. Conquest of Britain by the English.—According to the common account, the conquest of Britain by the English began in 449 A.D. The English were of the Teutonic race, to which also the Germans, the Dutch, and the Norsemen belonged. Though they were all called Saxons by the Britons, and afterwards all went by the name of English, there were really three tribes of the conquerors—the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles. It was the Jutes who set up the first kingdom of Kent under Hengest.

3. The English Kingdoms.—We know very little about the details of this English conquest. But we are certain that they first landed about the middle of the fifth century, and that at the end of the sixth century, after one hundred and fifty years of fighting, they were in possession of great part of the country. This is a list of the kingdoms they set up, the smaller ones being omitted :

- (1) Kent (Jutes), founded by Hengest, 449 A.D. (See map.)
- (2) Sussex (South Saxons), founded by Ella, 477 A.D.
- (3) Wessex (West Saxons), founded by Cerdic, 495 A.D.
- (4) Essex (East Saxons).
- (5) Bernicia (Land of the Braes; an Anglian state), founded by Ida, 547 A.D.
- (6) Deira (an Anglian state), being joined to Bernicia, formed the kingdom of Northumbria, 603 A.D.
- (7) East Anglia (Norfolk or North-folk, and Suffolk or South-folk).
- (8) Mercia (the Marchland), founded about 580 A.D., grew by the union of many smaller states into a powerful kingdom. Mercia was settled by Angles.

Thus the Angles settled in the north and centre, while the Saxons occupied the south.

4. State of the English People.—The conquering English were led by kings, who were believed to be descended from the god Woden. The eldest son of the king did not always succeed to the throne. As they wished to have for king one who was able to lead them in war, the assemblies of the people chose the most competent person of the royal family descended from Woden.

These assemblies were called *Witena-gemôt*, or Meeting of the Wise; or simply the *Witan*, the Wise Men, and consisted of all the freemen. The freemen were of two classes, the *eorls* and *ceorls*, *earls* and *churls*; which is like the modern distinction of *gentle* and *simple*. The great warriors who were attached to the person of the king were called *thegns* or *thanes*. There were also many *thralls* or slaves, a great part of whom were Britons. The English who invaded Britain were hardy and warlike, knowing nothing of luxury, and cruel to their enemies; yet they were not mere savages. They knew the weaving of cloth; their chiefs were clad in mail; they tilled the ground, and had much cattle; kinsmen lived together in villages under just laws, and they respected women. They were heathens and worshipped many gods, of whom Woden, the god of war, and Thor or Thunor, the god of thunder, were the chief. The names of the old English gods are still preserved in the names of the days of the week, as Wednesday (Woden's day) and Thursday (Thor's day). Our fathers believed that if they were brave, fearless of danger, and did their duty fighting for their family and their tribe, they would go to heaven and live with the gods.

5. **King Arthur.**—Though the Britons were overcome in battle, and driven from the best part of their country, they did not yield till after many fierce and bloody wars. As they were of a very different race (Celts) from the English (who were Teutons), speaking a different language and holding a different religion, the hatred between them was very great. The great hero of the Britons was King Arthur, of whom we have little certain knowledge; but he has become famous in romance and poetry over the whole of Europe, even to this day. He is said to have been a great and good king, who gathered around him many noble knights, called the 'Knights of the Round Table.' With their help he overcame the English in twelve great battles, and might have been the deliverer of his country, but for the vice and treachery of some of his own people. Much of this is imaginary; but it is considered certain that he was a noble warrior, and that he gave the West-Saxon king Cerdic a great defeat at Mount Badon (520 A.D.). But the check was only for a time. By the end of the sixth century the ancient Britons were driven to the mountains of the west; great multitudes of them had been slain; some of them reduced to slavery. Those who remained in the west of the island formed three kingdoms: (1) Cornwall, (2) Wales, (3) Strathclyde or Cumbria.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

A.D.

1. The Britons are harassed by the Picts and Scots, and by the Saxons. They ask help from the Saxons.....449
 2. The English or Saxons were of Teutonic race. The English consisted of three tribes—Jutes, Saxons, and Angles.
 3. Conquest of Britain by the English.....449-600
 4. The English were a free and brave people, led by kings of the line of Woden, their god.
 5. King Arthur was the hero of the British resistance. He defeats Cerdic at Mount Badon.....520
- Three British kingdoms remaining—Cornwall, Wales, Strathclyde.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What people ravaged Britain after the departure of the Romans? What plan did the Britons take to drive back their enemies? What led the English to attempt the conquest of Britain?
2. When did the conquest begin? What race did the English belong to? Name other nations that belong to the same race. How many tribes of English were there? Name them.
3. Who was the founder of the kingdom of Kent? The founder of Wessex? The founder of Northumbria? What does the name Mercia mean? Where did the Saxons chiefly settle? Where the Angles?
4. From whom were the English kings believed to be descended? How were the kings chosen? What were the assemblies called? How many classes of freemen were there? Who were the thanes? How do we know that the English were not mere savages? Name some of the heathen gods of the English. How are their names preserved?
5. Who was King Arthur? Who were the 'Knights of the Round Table'? What was Arthur said to have done? The three kingdoms in which the Britons maintained themselves?

CHAPTER III.

CONVERSION OF THE ENGLISH.

1. Arrival of Augustine from Rome.—As we have said, the English conquerors of Britain were heathens. They were always at great enmity with the Britons, and were not likely to receive the gospel from them. The conversion of England was owing in

the first place to Rome. It is said that Gregory the Great was walking one day through the market-place of that city when he saw some beautiful youths standing for sale. 'From what country do these slaves come?' he asked the merchants. 'They are Angles,' said they. 'Not Angles, but angels,' replied Gregory, playing upon the name. 'What province do they come from?' 'From Deira,' said the merchants. 'De irá' (Latin, *from wrath*); 'yes, saved from the wrath of God. And what is their king's name?' 'Ælla!' 'Alleluiah shall be sung there!' When he became pope, he resolved to send missionaries to the Angles; and accordingly Augustine went with forty monks.

2. *Conversion of Kent (597 A.D.).*—When the missionaries heard how fierce the English were, they stayed in Gaul, afraid to cross the sea. Yet at the command of Gregory they went, and were received by Ethelbert, king of Kent, on the very spot where Hengest and Horsa had landed a hundred and fifty years before. Ethelbert had married a Christian wife, Bertha, daughter of the king of Paris, and was therefore the more inclined to hear them courteously. He gave them audience in the open air, seated upon his throne. The priests drew near, carrying a silver cross for a banner, and the image of the Saviour painted upon a board, offering up prayers and singing the hymns of the Church. The king listened courteously while Augustine preached the gospel, and gave him a house in his royal city of Canterbury. In a short time Ethelbert and all his people were baptised. Augustine was appointed the first Archbishop of Canterbury, which has since been the chief seat of the Church in England.

3. *Conversion of Northumbria (627 A.D.).*—Some time after, Paulinus, a companion of Augustine, was sent to preach to the Northumbrians at York. Edwin, their king, was in great perplexity as to what he should do, and called a meeting of his Wise Men. After much speaking, one of them arose and said: 'O king, the earthly life of man is like the flight of a sparrow through the room, when the fire is lighted within, and the storm is raging without. It comes in from the storm and the darkness; stays a little while; then vanishes into the darkness again. So is the life of man; we know neither whence he comes nor whither he goes; but if this new doctrine can teach us anything certain, we ought to follow it.' The other Wise Men agreed to this. They burned the temple to the ground, and received baptism.

4. **Holy Island.**—Soon after, King Edwin was slain in battle against Penda of Mercia, who was a heathen, and was an enemy both of the Northumbrians and of the new faith. Oswald, who succeeded Edwin, had taken refuge in Iona, where St Columba had settled with missionaries from Ireland, and had begun the conversion of the Picts. When Oswald became king, he found that Paulinus had fled, and that many of his people had fallen back into heathenism; so he sent to Iona for missionaries. St Aidan came, and settled at Lindisfarne or Holy Island (636 A.D.). His preaching was very successful among the Northumbrians.

5. **Death of Penda (655 A.D.).**—Now Penda, king of Mercia, was a great warrior. He fought for the old gods and overthrew his enemies on every side. He slew Edwin of Northumbria, and also Oswald his successor, who were both powerful kings. Then he marched against Oswy, brother of Oswald, who had become king of Northumbria, determined to extirpate the whole nation, from the highest to the lowest. Oswy was afraid of him, and offered him great gifts, which he refused. Then Oswy said: 'If the heathen will not accept our gifts, let us offer them to one who will—the Lord our God.' A great battle was fought at Vinwed (in Yorkshire), where Penda was defeated and slain. The cause of the heathen gods was lost, and the whole of England became Christian.

6. **The Synod at Whitby (664 A.D.).**—The Christians of Wales and Iona did not agree in some points with the missionaries from Rome. Augustine had a meeting with the Welsh priests under an oak; but he could not convince them. At last King Oswy called a great meeting at Whitby, and after hearing both the missionaries from Iona and the missionaries from Rome, he decided to follow the Bishop of Rome. After that the missionaries of Lindisfarne returned home to Iona. In this way England came to obey the Church of Rome.

7. **Results of the Introduction of Christianity.**—Learning soon began to flourish in England, especially in Northumberland. The Church service was in Latin. To Bede (died 755 A.D.), a monk at Jarrow, we owe most of our knowledge of early English history. Another result of the conversion of England was that it helped to put an end to the exterminating wars with the Britons; they now held the same faith. It also did something towards uniting the kingdoms of England. Canterbury became the ecclesiastical capital of England; and this shewed the people how they could have a political capital as well.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph	A.D.
1. Gregory is interested in some Anglian youths at Rome.	
2. Arrival of Augustine; conversion of men of Kent.....	597
3. Paulinus converts the Northumbrians.....	627
4. Aidan settles in Holy Island.....	636
5. Penda is defeated and slain at Vinwed.....	655
6. Oswy holds synod of Whitby.....	664
7. After introduction of Christianity, learning flourishes in Northumbria; wars with the Britons become less cruel.	
Death of Bede.....	755

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who sent the missionaries from Rome to England? How did he become interested in the people of England? What is the story about Gregory and the Saxon youths?
2. What king received Augustine and the missionaries? Where did he settle them? What success had they in Kent?
3. Who was sent to convert the Northumbrians? Give the tale of the sparrow.
4. Who was St Columba, and where did he settle? Who invited missionaries to Northumbria from Iona? Where did Aidan settle? What success had he?
5. Who was Penda? What cause did he support? What Northumbrian kings did he slay? By whom was he himself defeated? What result followed?
6. Why was the synod of Whitby called? What decision was come to? What was the result of King Oswy's decision?
7. What good results had the conversion of England, as to learning? As to the wars with the Britons? As to the union of England?

CHAPTER IV.

THE ENGLISH KINGDOMS BEFORE THE UNION UNDER
EGBERT (600-827 A.D.).

1. Wars among the English.—No sooner had the English driven the Britons into the mountains of the west, than they began to make war upon each other. Till Egbert of Wessex overcame all the other states, and made himself king of all England, there were more than two centuries of incessant fighting. Those rival English kingdoms used to be called the

Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy, that is, the seven kingdoms of the Anglo-Saxons; Heptarchy being formed of two Greek words, which signify *seven* and *kingdom*. But, strictly speaking, there were sometimes more than seven kingdoms, sometimes fewer.

2. *The Bretwalda*.—Of these kingdoms, one was usually more powerful than any of the others, and was looked upon as the leading state. The wisest and strongest king, the monarch who ruled over the most powerful kingdom, compelled the others to own him as their lord, and this king was called the 'Bretwalda' or 'Wielder of Britain.' One of the first and most celebrated of these Bretwaldas was that Ethelbert, king of Kent, who received the missionaries from Rome. But the Bretwaldas generally belonged to one or other of the three kingdoms of Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex. These three were far larger and stronger than the others, and were generally able to keep them in submission. It was between Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex that the fiercest contests for supremacy over all the Anglo-Saxon states were carried on.

3. *Northumbria*.—For a long time Northumbria took the lead. In 603, the famous king Ethelfrith joined Deira to Bernicia, and thus formed the great kingdom of Northumbria. He defeated the North Britons in many battles, took Chester, and made himself overlord of Mercia. Edwin, his successor, ruled as far north as the Firth of Forth, where he founded Edinburgh (Edwin's burgh), to protect that part of his kingdom; and he was overlord of all England, except Kent. Penda, king of Mercia, who was the enemy of Northumbria as well as the champion of Woden, resisted the supremacy of the northern kings. With the help of Cadwallon, king of the Strathclyde Britons, he defeated and slew Edwin at Hatfield in Yorkshire. He also defeated and slew Oswald, successor of Edwin; but being himself slain by Oswy at the battle of Vinwed Field, Northumbria prevailed. The last of the great Northumbrian kings was Egfrith, who was for a long time very successful in war; but rashly marching too far into the country of the Picts, he was surrounded and cut off with all his army at Nechtansmere, near Forfar (685 A.D.). From that time Northumbria fell into great disorder, and lost its high place among the English kingdoms.

4. *Mercia*.—After the fall of Northumbria, Mercia took the lead for about a century. The greatest of its kings was Offa (758-794), who was a wise man as well as a great warrior. He

overran a great part of Wales ; and to secure his new conquests, drew a great dyke from the mouth of the Dee to that of the Wye, called 'Offa's Dyke.' The other kings of England obeyed him. Offa was the friend and even the rival of the Frankish Emperor, Charlemagne, or Charles the Great.

5. Egbert, king of the English (827 A.D.).—Meanwhile Wessex too had very powerful rulers, who were sometimes more than a match in battle for the great kings of Mercia. They were very busy warring against the Welsh of Cornwall, and enlarging their borders in that direction. One of the most famous of these kings was Ini, who was a great warrior, and made very wise laws for his people, called after him the laws of Ini. He laid aside his crown and made a pilgrimage to Rome. But the most famous of these kings of Wessex was Egbert. Egbert was a great and wise monarch. He overcame his enemies on every side, and especially the Mercians, who invaded Wessex, but were defeated at the bloody battle of Ellandune. In 827 he marched into Mercia, and compelled the Mercians to receive him as their lord. The Northumbrians also submitted, and all the rest of England, including Wales and Cornwall. Egbert styled himself the 'King of the English.' Thus England was united under the kings of the house of Cerdic. Only we must remember that under Egbert and some of his successors the kings of Mercia and Northumbria were still permitted to reign. They became the men or vassals of the king of Wessex, acknowledging him as their master and lord.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

A. D.

1. Wars among the English themselves : the 'Heptarchy.'
2. The Bretwaldas ; Ethelbert of Kent ; Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex the leading states.
3. Ethelfrith forms the kingdom of Northumbria 603
 Edwin of Northumbria slain at Hatfield 633
 Penda defeated at Vinwed 655
 Egfrith defeated and slain at Nectansmere 685
4. Supremacy of Mercia, especially under Offa 758-794
5. Supremacy of Wessex ; England united under Egbert 827

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What happened after the Britons were driven out? What is meant by the Heptarchy? Is this quite accurate?
2. Who was the Bretwalda? Name the three most powerful kingdoms of England at this time.

3. Give an account of the deeds of Ethelfrith. Who founded Edinburgh? What was Edwin's object in founding it? Describe the wars of Penfa. What was the end of Egrith? What happened to Northumbria after Egrith's death?
4. What state now won supremacy in England? Who was the greatest king of Mercia? What great conquests did he make? What great emperor was his friend?
5. What state now took the first place in England? How is King Ini distinguished? Under what king did Wessex become supreme over all England? Name the great battle in which he overcame Mercia. Did the other kings cease to reign? What royal house did Egbert belong to?

CHAPTER V.

THE DANES (787 A.D.).

1. **The Danes.**—The Christian Britons had been invaded by the heathen English. The English after being converted to Christianity, were now in their turn to be attacked by the heathen Danes. The Danes, called also Norsemen or Northmen, were a Teutonic people, like the English and Germans. They worshipped the same gods as the English before they were converted, and spoke a tongue very like theirs. In after-times they formed the three kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. These Danes were a wonderfully brave, restless, and adventurous people. Ploughing the soil they considered to be work fit for slaves only; it was the greatest disgrace to die a quiet death at home, and most glorious of all to die on the field of battle surrounded by slaughtered enemies.

2. **Their plundering Expeditions and Invasions.**—These Norsemen loved the sea greatly. Setting out in their light galleys or *aeacs*, they began to ravage all the surrounding countries. They landed on the coast, or sailed up a river and landed, plundering everywhere, and slaying the inhabitants without mercy. They were strong men clad in armour, and fought with a sword or a heavy battle-axe. They used to fortify themselves in a camp in a favourable position near the sea or a river. Here they returned with their plunder; when hard pressed by their enemy they took refuge in it, or escaped to their ships. Being pagans, they made fiercest war on the monks, the

monasteries, and churches. Afterwards, when they grew stronger, they conquered the countries they had ravaged, as Normandy.

3. *Their Ravages in England.*—No country suffered more from the ravages and invasions of the Danes than England. For a period of more than two centuries it was seldom quite free of them; and at one time the king of England was a Dane. Still they did good so far as they made the English unite against their common enemy. They were first heard of in 787, when they landed from three ships. They seem to have first come in force about the end of Egbert's reign. In a great battle at Hengest-down, in Cornwall, Egbert routed them and the Cornishmen, with whom they had made an alliance. During the reign of Ethelwulf, who succeeded Egbert in 836, the struggle became very severe. As the English had no ships, and could not meet them on the sea, the Danes landed where and when they pleased. They came and ravaged in summer, returning to the north during the winter. In 851 they first stayed over the winter on the island of Thanet.

4. *The great Danish Army.*—For some time they spoiled the country without trying to conquer it. At length in 866 a great army landed in East Anglia. The story is that a Danish chief, Ragnar Lodbrog, having been shipwrecked on the coast of Northumberland, was, by the king of the country, cast into a dungeon full of snakes. While he was dying from the poisonous bites he sang a war-song recounting his exploits. Ingvar and Ubba, the sons of Ragnar, vowed revenge, and sailed with a powerful army for England, bearing a famous banner with the figure of a raven upon it. They landed in East Anglia, and from thence set out to ravage Northumbria and Mercia, which were glad to make peace with them. Next they ravaged East Anglia itself, slaying its king, Edmund, whom they scourged, bound to a tree, and made a mark for their arrows, because he would not renounce the Christian faith.

5. *Invasion of Wessex.*—In 871 A.D., the Danish host crossed the Thames and invaded Wessex. Here, however, they found an enemy able to resist them. King Ethelred and Alfred his brother met them at Ashdown, and put them to flight. But the Danes soon received help, and they fought again. In this year nine general battles took place against the Danes in the country south of the Thames, besides many less important encounters. The same year Ethelred died, and Alfred succeeded his brother.

KING ALFRED (871-901).

6. *Efforts of Alfred.*—It was well for the English that they had a king like Alfred to lead them in such a fearful struggle. He had terrible work before him. He was only twenty-two years of age when he became king; and all England north of the Thames was occupied by the Danes, or afraid to fight against them. But even the Danes were not fond of meeting an enemy like Alfred. For a time they ravaged Mercia and the far north, where some of them began to divide the land and to settle. Meanwhile the king began to build ships, and when his enemies again attacked Wessex, he pressed them so hard that they were obliged to make peace.

7. *Alfred defeats the Danes at Edington (878 A.D.).*—The Danes were faithless, and broke their word. Shortly after new-year 878, they fell furiously upon Wessex when the king was unprepared, and, forcing him to flee for his life to the wastes of Somersetshire, overran the whole country. At that moment England seemed lost. But Alfred lay hid, watching for an opportunity to renew the struggle. While in disguise it is said that he stayed with a herdsman, whose wife did not know who he was. Going out one day, she ordered Alfred to look after some cakes that were baking on the hearth. The king, having something more serious to think about, forgot the cakes. When the good-wife returned, she found them burned, and gave Alfred a sound scolding for neglecting the cakes which he was only too glad to eat. While in concealment, Alfred heard the cheering news that the Devonshire men had thoroughly beaten part of the Danish army, and taken the Raven Banner. After that he began to gather his warriors about him; and when the right time was come, sent word to all Englishmen to meet him at Egbert's Stone. All the men of Somersetshire and Wiltshire came, and very joyful they were to see their king again. He led them against the Danes immediately, and at Edington, in Wiltshire, routed Guthrun the Danish king and the whole Danish host. After that Guthrun, being surrounded on all sides, submitted to Alfred, and was baptised. By the treaty of Wedmore (878 A.D.) it was agreed that the Danes should leave Wessex for ever and retire to the northern part of England, including Northumbria, East Anglia, and a great part of Mercia.

8. **Good Government of Alfred.**—After the peace of Wedmore, the English had rest from the Danes for many years. Meanwhile Alfred, who was even greater in peace than in war, set himself to heal and settle the country that had suffered so much. He drew up a code of laws, taking the best of Ini and Offa, and also some out of the Bible; these laws he enforced with an impartiality that had not been known in England before. He built a fleet, and did his utmost to teach his people how to defend the coast against the Danes; for the English had forgotten all their seafaring habits. Having found that the Danes were far more skilful in fortifications than his own people, he taught them also to fortify their towns. As learning had sadly decayed during the wars, he encouraged it in every way by helping scholars, and founding schools and monasteries. He translated several books into English himself, and was thus the great beginner of English prose-writing. He sent ships to explore the northern seas. He sent embassies to Rome, and even to India. In short, he did everything he could to make England great, enlightened, and happy.

9. **Danish Invasion under Hasting (893-897 A.D.).**—When the Danes invaded England again, they found the country able to defend itself. This time their leader was Hasting, and they came over from France, which they had been laying waste. Alfred and his captains watched them, and prevented them from spoiling England. After marching about for some time as far as Chester, they were glad to leave the country, as they found themselves checked and defeated at every turn.

10. **Death of Alfred.**—This was the last struggle of Alfred. He died in 901, at the age of fifty-two, and was buried at Winchester. He ought to be remembered as the greatest and best of the English kings. He saved his country from ruin, when it was attacked by a savage and merciless enemy; but, when he had made England strong, and the necessity for war was past, he spent his whole life in promoting the happiness and enlightenment of the people.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph	A.D.
1. The Danes were a warlike people of Teutonic race.	
2. They made great plundering expeditions in their galleys.	
3. They begin to ravage England.....	787
Egbert defeats them at Hengest-down.....	835

4. A great Danish host lands in East Anglia.....866
They conquer East Anglia and ravage Northumbria.
5. They invade Wessex but are defeated at Ashdown.....871
6. Alfred becomes King of Wessex.....871
He builds ships to fight them on the sea. They begin to settle in Northumbria.
7. The Danes overrun Wessex; Alfred conceals himself. Alfred defeats the Danes at Edington; peace of Wedmore.....878
8. Alfred makes wise laws; builds a fleet, fortifies the towns; encourages learning.
9. The Danes invade England under Hasting.....893-897
10. Alfred dies, and is buried at Winchester.....901

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What people now invaded England? What race did they belong to? What was their religion? What did they consider the fitting work of a free man?
2. How did they make their plundering expeditions? What were the special objects of attack?
3. How long did they ravage England? Where did Egbert defeat them? What made it difficult for the English to crush them?
4. When did the great Danish host come over? What story is told as to the reason of this great invasion? Where did it land first? Describe the death of King Edmund.
5. When did they first invade Wessex? Where did King Ethelred and his brother Alfred defeat them? How many pitched battles took place in that year?
6. How old was Alfred when he became king? What made his task such a difficult one? What new plan did he adopt to check the Danes?
7. What happened in the winter of 878? Where did Alfred take refuge? Tell the story of the cakes. What event encouraged Alfred to meet the Danes again? Where did he overcome them? What were the conditions of the peace of Wedmore?
8. What did Alfred do after subduing the Danes, as to laws? As to a fleet? As to the fortifications? Learning? His translations? His embassies?
9. What Danish leader invaded England again? What success did he meet with?
10. When did Alfred die? Where was he buried? Why should all Englishmen remember him with gratitude?

CHAPTER VI.

THE HOUSE OF ALFRED (901-1016 A.D.).

1. **Edward the Elder (901-925 A.D.).**—The good which Alfred wrought for England did not cease with his death. He left behind him children and grandchildren, who were trained in his principles and walked in his footsteps. They made England prosperous at home, and victorious over her enemies. The great difficulty continued to be the Danes, who, under kings or chiefs of their own, occupied Northumbria, East Anglia, and a great part of Mercia, and were only slightly under the control of Wessex. This Danish country was called the Danelagh. Assisted by his sister Ethelfled, the Lady of Mercia, Edward gradually reduced the Danish strongholds. He had advanced as far as the Humber, when the Scots, as well as the Northumbrians and the Britons of Strathclyde, 'chose him for father and lord.' Wales having already submitted, Edward was thus acknowledged Overlord of the whole island of Great Britain (924). He died in 925.

2. **Overlords.**—As it was a common thing at that time for one king to choose another as overlord, we must try to understand what is meant by this. The king who chose another as lord did not cease to reign; he only promised to be the man or servant of his lord, to be ready to help him in battle; and he expected protection from him. It was a form of submission to a superior, which might mean a great deal or nothing at all, according as the overlord was able or not to enforce obedience. If the overlord was very powerful, he could make the inferior king do his will in all things; otherwise it might be a mere form.

3. **Athelstan (925-940 A.D.).**—Athelstan, son of Edward, nobly continued the work of his father. He brought Northumbria under his immediate government, and joined it to the rest of England. Thus he was the first real king of all England. And so we see how the kings of Wessex not only saved the country from the Danes, but united the whole into one great kingdom of England, Athelstan having finished this work. But he had to fight for his new conquest. In 937, Anlaf, a Danish king from Ireland; Constantine, king of the Scots; Owen, king of Cumberland, with all the Danes, Scots, and Welsh of the north, being afraid of Athelstan, made a great

alliance against him. Entering England by the Humber, they met him at Brunanburh (in Northumbria), and were defeated with great slaughter. This battle was considered one of the hardest and greatest ever fought in England, and was celebrated in a war-song, which is still preserved.

4. Edmund (940-946 A.D.).—Edmund, brother of Athelstan, was also a great warrior, and fought at Brunanburh. He quelled a revolt of the English Danes. In 945 he ravaged all Cumberland, that is, the kingdom of Strathclyde, and granted it to Malcolm, king of Scotland, on condition 'that he should be his fellow-worker, as well by sea as by land.' Edmund was stabbed by a Danish robber, Leofa, who had seated himself at the royal table and refused to leave.

5. Edred (946-955 A.D.) and Edwy (955-959 A.D.).—Edred, brother of Edmund, succeeded. The Danelagh, or country of the Danes, was still restless, and often rose in revolt; but Edred subdued them. His great adviser was Dunstan, a monk, who was a very wise and eloquent man. He had great influence with many of the English kings, and tried to reform the Church according to his principles. By his great wisdom and courtesy he knew how to win men's hearts. Edred liked him, and raised him to a high place in the Church. He obliged the monks to live according to monastic rules, and he wished to compel the parish or secular clergy, as they are called, to put away their wives. He was also a great statesman: some of the best plans followed by the kings of that time are believed to be due to Dunstan. Edwy, son of Edmund, did not like Dunstan, and drove him into exile chiefly because he and the clergy did not approve of the royal marriage.

6. Edgar the Peaceable (959-975 A.D.).—Edwy became so unpopular that the people north of the Thames chose his brother Edgar for their king. After Edwy's death, Edgar became king of all England, and had a very peaceable and prosperous reign. Dunstan was now made Archbishop of Canterbury, and became the chief adviser of the king, helping to frame just laws and to encourage learning. Edgar kept a large fleet, with which he sailed round Wales, and landed at Chester. Here eight kings met him, among whom was Kenneth of Scotland; and one day we are told they rowed Edgar down the river Dee, while he sat at the helm. It is supposed by some that Edgar granted Lothian (the country between the Forth and the Tweed) to Kenneth, on condition that he should do homage for it and help

him in his wars. The grant of Strathclyde in the reign of Edmund, and the grant of Lothian, whether it was made in Edgar's reign or not, gave to the king of the Scots the whole southern division of what came to be the kingdom of Scotland.

7. **Edward the Martyr (975-979 A.D.).**—During the reign of Edward, son of Edgar, St Dunstan still continued to be the great adviser and statesman. His Church policy gave rise to much disputing. The only remarkable fact about Edward is the manner of his death. Returning from his hunting one day, he called at the house of his step-mother, Elfrida; while he was quenching his thirst at the door, one of her attendants stabbed him from behind.

8. **Ethelred the Unready (979-1016 A.D.).**—Ethelred, another son of Edgar, was the weakest and most unfortunate of the old English kings. It was usual in those days to distinguish each king by a surname. As Ethelred means the noble-in-counsel, so, to mark his real character, they nicknamed him the Unready or 'Uncounselled.' The very year after his elevation to the throne, the Danes renewed their ravages, landing on the coast and wasting the country. As the king was not the man to lead the united people against them, they were seldom opposed by a powerful force. Each part of the country left the rest to take care of itself, and each part was wasted in turn. The king then took to the useless and cowardly plan of buying off the invader with a large sum of money. The Danes took the money, but soon returned to spoil the country again and to demand a larger sum. The money so paid used to be called Danegeld. In 994, Sweyn, king of Denmark, himself invaded England. A general massacre of the Danes in England, which had been decreed by Ethelred to take place on St Brice's Day, 1002, and in which a sister of Sweyn's had perished, gave him excuse for still more terrible cruelties. For four years the whole of Wessex was wasted. Finally, in the invasion of 1013 all England submitted to Sweyn, Ethelred taking refuge in Normandy. Northumbria, remembering its Danish kinship, had no difficulty in yielding. The most honourable exception to the general slackness was London, which baffled the invader four times during these wars, and only yielded after the rest of England had submitted. Sweyn died in 1014. Ethelred was welcomed back by his people, and died in 1016.

9. **Edmund and Canute.**—There were now two able candidates for the crown of England. These were Edmund Ironside,

son of Ethelred, so named from his hardy strength and bravery, who was chosen king at London; and Canute, son of Sweyn, who was chosen at Southampton. A fierce war followed. Six battles were fought in as many months, in four of which Edmund was victorious, but was defeated in the sixth (at Assandun, in Essex) through the treachery of one of his nobles. At the peace of Olney they agreed to share England between them, Edmund having the southern part, and Canute (whose Danish name was *Knut*) the northern. Edmund died shortly after.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph	A.D.
1. England prospers under Alfred's line; Edward the Elder.....	901-925
The Scots and Britons acknowledge Edward as Overlord.....	924
2. Overlordship often meant little; but it indicated superiority of some kind.	
3. Athelstan succeeds his father Edward.....	925-940
He joins Northumbria to Wessex; and	
Defeats the Danes and Scots at Brunanburh.....	937
4. Reign of Edmund.....	940-946
He grants Strathclyde to the Scots.....	945
5. Reign of Edred.....	946-955
Dunstan is chief minister.	
Reign of Edwy.....	955-959
6. Reign of Edgar the Peaceable.....	959-975
Dunstan, now Archbishop of Canterbury, is his chief counsellor; he grants Lothian to the Scots.	
7. Reign of Edward the Martyr.....	975-979
Treacherously killed by his step-mother Elfrida.	
8. Reign of Ethelred the Unready.....	979-1016
Renewed invasions of the Danes.	
Conquest of England by Sweyn.....	1013
9. Great struggle between Canute and Edmund Ironside.....	1016
Edmund is defeated at Assandun. Peace of Olney. Death of Edmund.	

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What did England owe to Alfred, even after his death? What part of England did the Danes still possess? What was it called? How far did Edward march in his conquests? What kings now acknowledged him as overlord?
2. What is meant by an overlord? What did the superior king promise to do? What did the inferior king promise?
3. What makes Athelstan remarkable among the kings of the house

- of Alfred? What nations fought at Brunanburh? How has the battle been celebrated?
4. What became of Strathclyde during Edmund's reign? The manner of Edmund's death.
 5. Where was the Danelagh? Who was Dunstan? What were his plans? What happened to Dunstan in Edwy's reign?
 6. What high office did Dunstan obtain during Edgar's reign? What was the nature of Edgar's reign? What happened at Chester? What is supposed to have happened with regard to Lothian in this reign? What kingdom did Lothian belong to formerly?
 7. What do we hear of Dunstan during Edward the Martyr's reign? How did Edward get this name?
 8. Why was Ethelred called the Unready? What is meant by the Danegeld? What happened on St Brice's Day? What happened in consequence? Which town greatly distinguished itself in this reign?
 9. Who was Edmund Ironside? Why was he so called? How many battles did he fight against Canute? Where was he defeated at last? What arrangement did the rival kings come to?

CHAPTER VII.

THE DANISH KINGS (1016—1042 A.D.).

1. **Canute (1016—1035 A.D.).**—Canute, son of Sweyn, now became king of all England according to the agreement made at the peace of Olney. The first care of Canute was to remove out of the way all who might disturb the security of his government. Such of the nobles as might prove dangerous were slain. The children of Edmund Ironside were sent out of the kingdom. The children of Ethelred and his widow Emma were in Normandy. Emma he sent for and married.

2. **Government of Canute.**—After having thus made himself secure, Canute proved a mild and just ruler. He had a very wide empire; Denmark and Norway belonged to it, while Malcolm of Scotland seems to have acknowledged him as Overlord. Yet he loved England more than any other part of his dominions, and spent nearly all his time there. Though in some respects a foreign king, he became thoroughly English, being a great favourite with the people, and feeling quite at home among them. He divided the kingdom into four earldoms—Wessex, Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria—retaining Wessex for

himself. He was the first English king to maintain a small standing army of household troops, called *huscarls* (house-carls). They were a mixed force of Danes and English; but he did not employ them to oppress his people.

3. *Canute rebukes his Courtiers.*—Some stories are told of Canute which shew what kind of man he was thought to be. As his courtiers used to flatter him exceedingly, he took the following plan to rebuke them. Taking his seat on the beach as the tide was coming in, he commanded it to draw back and not dare to wet the feet of its sovereign. But the waters, heedless of the royal word, dashed in, and surrounding the king's chair, forced him to retire. Turning to his courtiers, he called on them to see how vain was the power of kings, and that there was no king but Him whom the sea and all things obey. After this it is said he never wore a crown, but hung it on the image of the crucified Saviour. Under no king of that time did England enjoy such peace as under Canute. Though stern and even cruel at the beginning of his reign, he ruled well and justly afterwards.

4. *Harold (1035-1040 A.D.).*—At the death of Canute there was a dispute for the crown of England between Harold Harefoot and Hardicanute, both sons of the late king, but by different mothers. At first the kingdom was divided between them; but as Hardicanute, who was also king of Denmark, delayed to take possession of his portion, Harold was made sole king. During his reign, Alfred and Edward, sons of Ethelred and Emma, came over from Normandy to claim the kingdom. Edward escaped; but Alfred was taken, and cruelly put to death.

5. *Hardicanute (1040-1042 A.D.).*—On the death of Harold, who was not a good king, Hardicanute succeeded. He was even more worthless than his half-brother. One of his first acts was to command the body of Harold to be dug up and flung into the Thames. His death was like his life. He died while drinking at the marriage-feast of one of his nobles.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph	A.D.
1. Reign of Canute.....	1016-1035
2. Canute ruled over a great empire, but loved England most of all; divided it into four earldoms.	
3. Rebukes the flattery of his courtiers.	
4. Reign of Harold Harefoot	1035-1040
5. Reign of Hardicanute.....	1040-1042

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION

1. Who now became king of England? By what arrangement did he become king? What were the first acts of Canute?
 2. Name the kingdoms over which Canute reigned. Did he reign in England like a foreigner? Name the earldoms he created in England. Who were the huscarls?
 3. How did Canute rebuke the flattery of his courtiers?
 4. Who succeeded Canute? What fate befel Alfred, son of Ethelred?
 5. What kind of king was Hardicanute? How did he die?
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CHAPTER VIII.

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR (1042-1066 A.D.).

1. **Love of Edward for the Normans.**—Edward the Confessor, one of the old line of English kings, was now chosen king. He was the son of Ethelred the Unready and his Norman wife Emma. He had lived almost all his life in Normandy, and had a great love for everything Norman. He surrounded himself with Norman favourites, and raised them to the highest offices in the kingdom.

2. **The House of Godwine.**—This weak fondness of the king for Norman strangers was very vexatious to the English, and especially to the great Earl Godwine. During the reign of Canute, Godwine had risen from an obscure condition to the first place in England. He was nearly related by marriage to the Danish king, and had received the earldom of Wessex. He was distinguished for his wisdom, and the persuasive eloquence with which he moved the assemblies of the Witan. He had a large and promising family, one of whom, Edith, became the wife of King Edward; another, Harold, became king of England after Edward's death.

3. **Expulsion of the Normans.**—The Norman favourites were at last expelled, and in the following manner. Eustace of Boulogne, one of the foreign relatives of the king, had a brawl with the men of Dover, which had been stirred up by his own insolence. As Dover belonged to the earldom of Godwine, King

Edward bade him punish that town. This Godwine refused to do, unless the men of Dover had a fair trial. Godwine had to flee the country; but he returned next year. The English were heartily sick of the insolent Norman strangers, who were obliged to make haste out of the country (1052 A.D.).

4. **Harold.**—Godwine died soon after; but Harold succeeded to the earldom of Wessex, and to his great influence in England. He was brave, and a great favourite with the people. Henceforward he ruled in the king's name, and made himself famous by his victories over the Welsh. King Edward died in 1066, after just finishing Westminster Abbey. He was not a strong-minded king; but his piety gained him the name of *Confessor*, by which he is known in history. As there was no suitable person of the line of Cerdic to succeed Edward, the Witan elected Harold, who was crowned at Westminster, on the 6th of January 1066.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST (1066 A.D.).

5. **William of Normandy.**—Beyond the sea, Duke William of Normandy heard with unspeakable wrath of Harold's elevation to the throne. Normandy, or land of the Northmen, was a part of North-western France, where those sea-rovers had settled under Rollo about a century and a half before their conquest of England. They had learned the speech and many of the habits of the French; but they were still the bravest and most skilful warriors of Europe. While yet a mere youth, William had to fight hard for the dukedom of Normandy. He never met his match in battle; he became a great statesman, and now laid claim to the crown of England. It is said that Edward the Confessor had promised to make him his successor; and that Harold himself, when he was shipwrecked on the Norman coast, had sworn to give him his support. Resolving to make good his claim, such as it was, to the English crown, he began to collect a mighty host, and to build a great fleet to carry it across. He made all Europe believe that he was the rightful king of England. He prevailed on the pope to excommunicate Harold, and to send a consecrated banner for his army.

6. **Battle of Stamford Bridge.**—The autumn of 1066 was a time of great anxiety in England. While Harold was watching the south coast, to prevent the landing of William, a Norwegian host had invaded Northumbria. The leaders of this invasion were Harold Hadrada, king of Norway, and Tostig, brother of

the English Harold, who had been expelled from the earldom of Northumbria. The English king had to march north to fight the Norwegians. At Stamford Bridge, near York, he defeated them completely, and Harold Hardrada and Tostig were among the slain.

7. Battle of Hastings (Senlac), 1066.—Meanwhile, Harold had lost the best opportunity of beating off the Norman invasion. At York, he and his thanes were holding the customary feast after his victory, when the tidings came that William had landed at Pevensey on the coast of Sussex. Hurrying south, and halting only at London to recruit his army, he took a position on the hill of Senlac (near Hastings), and awaited the attack of William. His men were all on foot with a palisade in front of them; round his standard stood his best troops, the house-carls, clad in mail and armed with a heavy battle-axe, which they wielded with both hands. At nine in the morning of the 14th October, a fearful day in the history of England, the Normans began the battle. While the bowmen harassed the English with a shower of arrows, the heavily-armed troops, the chief of whom were the Norman knights, attacked the palisade. The fight was long and stubborn. The forces of William repeatedly fell back before the battle-axes. A feigned flight of the Normans at last drew part of the English from their strong position. At the point left exposed, the knights rushed in, and the bowmen, at the bidding of William, shot their arrows into the air, so that they might fall on the faces of the English. Harold and his brother were slain. All the best and bravest of England fell round the royal standard. The body of Harold was so disfigured that search was made for it in vain, till Edith of the Swan-neck, a lady whom he had once loved, succeeded in finding it out.

8. After the Battle.—For some time after the battle there was no appearance of submission on the part of the English. Edgar, commonly called Edgar Atheling, grandson of Edmund Ironside, was chosen king at London. The mainstay of the new king were Edwin and Morcar, the Earls of Northumbria and Mercia, who, being jealous of the power of Harold, had held aloof from the battle of Hastings. Meanwhile, the Conqueror, waiting till the right moment should come, marched leisurely by Dover and Canterbury to Southwark, which he burned within sight of the Londoners. Then crossing the Thames at Wallingford, he placed himself between London and the north. Seeing the hopelessness of resistance, the English were obliged to

submit to the Conqueror at Berkhamstead. 'They bowed to him for need,' says one of the old chronicles. William was accordingly crowned at London on Christmas-day, 1066.

9. *Last Struggles of the English.*—The greater part of England had submitted, and William seemed quite ready to rule like a native English king. So quiet was the country, that after only six months' stay in it, he thought it safe to pay a visit to Normandy. But the rule of Odo, his half-brother, and of the officers he left behind him, was very oppressive, and the English seized the opportunity to rise in revolt, especially in the west and north. It required four years of hard fighting to make him master of the whole kingdom. Exeter was taken, and the west reduced to submission. To punish the Northumbrians for the slaughter of the Norman garrison of York, he harried the whole country from the Humber to the Tees. A hundred thousand people are said to have perished of famine. Yorkshire was a wilderness for half a century after. With the fall of Chester ended the resistance of the north. With the taking of Ely, where Hereward and a valiant band of patriots had offered a long resistance to William, ended the last great effort of the English (1071). The march of the Conqueror as far north as Abernethy (Perthshire) obliged the king of Scotland to pay homage. Strong castles were erected to secure the submission of England, and the land was divided among the followers of the Conqueror.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph	A.D.
1. Reign of Edward the Confessor.....	1042-1066
Edward shews great favour to the Normans.	
2. Godwine, Earl of Wessex, has great influence in England.	
3. The Normans are expelled.....	1052
4. Harold succeeds to the influence of Godwine.	
Death of Edward the Confessor, and accession of Harold.....	1066
5. William of Normandy claims the crown of England; he raises a great army, and receives the blessing of the pope.	
6. Harold defeats the Danes at Stamford Bridge.....	1066
7. Harold is defeated at Senlac.....	1066
8. William is crowned King of England at Westminster.....	1066
9. William harries Northumberland, and takes Chester.	
Ely is taken, and the last English resistance overcome.....	1071

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who was now chosen king of England? What royal house did he belong to? Where had he lived most of his life?
2. What great earl was annoyed at the fondness of Edward for the Normans? Who was Godwine? How was he distinguished? What children of Godwine became remarkable?
3. What happened at Dover? How were the Norman favourites expelled?
4. Who succeeded Earl Godwine in his earldom? What was the character of Harold? When did Edward die? Who succeeded?
5. Who laid claim to the crown of England? Explain the name of Normandy. What claim had William to the crown?
6. Where was Stamford Bridge? Who fought in the battle there?
7. Where did William land? Where did Harold await his attack? On what day was the battle of Hastings fought? Who were Harold's best troops? Of what did the chief strength of the Norman army consist? Describe the battle.
8. Who was elected king after the battle? How did William march after Hastings? Where did the king Edgar make his submission to the Conqueror? When was William crowned?
9. What occurred during William's absence in Normandy? Where did the chief revolts take place? What was the harrying of Northumbria? Who was Hereward? What took place at Abernethy?

PART II.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

P A R T I I.

INTRODUCTION.

THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS (1066).

WE have seen in Part I. how Duke William of Normandy had invaded England, and how Harold, the last of the old English kings, met him in battle near Hastings. Harold had but 20,000 men to defend his kingdom against 60,000 Normans. He drew up his Englishmen on a low hill at Senlac near Hastings, and planted palisades or fences of trees and branches in front of his army. The Normans were accustomed to fight on horseback, with lance and sword; the English on foot, with long swords or heavy battle-axes. Therefore Harold chose a place where fighting would be difficult for horse-soldiers; and, commanding his men on no account to go outside the fence, he waited for the foreigners to attack. The battle began at nine o'clock on the morning of the 14th of October. For a long time the English held their own, and repulsed from the palisade the repeated onsets of the Norman cavalry. Once indeed the invaders seemed in full retreat. But the islanders suffered much from the clouds of French arrows that fell in their close-packed ranks. Harold, pierced in the eye, fell at the foot of the standard beneath which he had bravely fought. By a pretended flight, the Normans tempted the English to leave their ranks; and now that their front was broken, the strength of the English was gone. The enemy forced their way up the hill and amongst the English, who, though disheartened by the loss of their king, still fought stoutly. But numbers and superior arms carried the day; in the dusk, the English retreated still fighting. William had conquered in a great battle, but he had not yet subdued England.

CHAPTER I.

WILLIAM I (1066-1087).

1. **William becomes King.**—After the battle, the victor marched slowly towards London, besieging Dover on the way; while the great men of England hurriedly chose a successor to their slain king. Their choice fell on Edgar, a grand-nephew of Edward the Confessor; but he was too young to be of any use as a leader to the unhappy English people. So, when William threatened London, the chief Englishmen there decided that, as there was no army to resist the invader, they had better submit now than be compelled. Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury, offered William the crown of England; and on Christmas-day, 1066, the Norman duke was crowned at Westminster.

2. **Conquest of the West and North.**—William was now secure as king of the south-east of England, and next year he went to Normandy to attend to his duties as duke there. He left his half-brother Odo, who was a bishop, and another Norman noble, in charge of England. Their rule was so tyrannical, that two rebellions broke out. These were, however, easily crushed; and when after eight months' absence William returned, he set himself to the conquest of the west country and the north, which had never submitted. In the spring of 1068, Exeter had fallen, and the west was at William's feet. But there was hard work to be done in the north. Even after the northern earls had been apparently quelled, resistance broke out again and again; and when the Danes came to their aid, it took all William's skill and power to reduce them. York was at last taken; and to make it impossible for this region to trouble him again, the Conqueror devastated great part of Durham and Yorkshire, so that for many a year the land was almost uninhabited, and the ground untilld. Chester was the last English town to hold out; but before the spring of 1070, William was in truth king of all the open country of England.

3. **Hereward the Outlaw.**—In the fen country round Ely in Cambridge, there was still narrow shelter for a band of brave men who ventured, amid their impassable marshes, to defy the foreign king of England. Their leader was Hereward, who had built a wooden fort not far from the abbey of Ely. The brave

outlaws were at last overcome through the treachery of false friends. William had now no enemies within the borders of England, and was free to deal with Malcolm, king of Scots. Malcolm had married Margaret, the sister of Edgar, who, after the battle of Hastings, had almost been made king of England; and he had always supported those who were enemies to William. Malcolm was soon compelled to make peace. The next trouble William had was not with the stubborn English patriots, but with two of his own followers, who had rebelled, but were easily punished. William had now leisure to arrange the government of the country according to his wishes. Amongst other things, he sent men to examine and note down precisely the size of every estate in England; the result of this survey is a work, still existing, called Domesday Book.

4. **William's last Years.**—In the last eleven years of his life, the king was much more occupied with affairs on the continent than in England. As Duke of Normandy, he made war upon his French neighbour lords or princes; and once he fought against his own rebellious eldest son Robert. In a war with his sovereign, the king of France, William caused the French town of Mantes, lying on the way from Normandy to Paris, to be burned. While he was giving orders, his horse stumbled, and hurt him so severely, that in a week or two he died.

5. **His Character.**—William was not only a skilful general, but an able and far-seeing statesman. He did not like cruelty for its own sake, but he was both cruel and unscrupulous when he thought it useful for him. Still he had a great regard for law, justice, and fair-play. Few men could have accomplished so soon and so thoroughly the great work of conquering and remodelling England.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. The crown is offered by the English to William..... | 1066 |
| 2. He gradually subdues the north and west..... | 1066-1070 |
| 3. Hereward is overcome..... | 1071 |
| 4. William has troubles in France..... | 1076-1087 |
| 5. William was a great statesman as well as a good soldier. | |

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

- What did the English do while William marched towards London?
What did they at last decide on?
- What happened while Odo governed England? How did

William treat Yorkshire and Durham? What town held out longest?

3. Where did Hereward defy William? What became of him? How did William deal with Malcolm? What was Domesday Book?
4. Where was William engaged in his later years? With whom had he to fight? How did he come by his death?
5. Was William a good statesman, or only a brave soldier? How is his greatness proved? Had he any regard for justice?

CHAPTER II.

EFFECTS OF THE NORMAN CONQUEST—CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

1. **The Feudal System.**—The land was mostly taken by the Conqueror from its English owners, and given to his own followers who had fought and conquered for him. The new landlords did not pay William money for their possessions. They swore to be faithful to him, to fight for him themselves, and bring their followers to fight when they were needed. Then if they had large estates, these great proprietors gave away parts of them to other gentlemen or brave soldiers, and made them promise in the same way to keep a number of fighting men always ready. This military way of holding land belongs to what is called the feudal system.

2. **The People.**—These Norman gentlemen were of course the new nobility of England, and held all the important offices in church and state. The old English nobles, having lost their land and wealth, disappeared amongst the humbler people; and a great many of English freemen, as well as those who had been serfs before the Conquest, were treated as a kind of slaves, called by the Normans 'villains.' In these days the whole nation consisted chiefly of the landowners on the one hand, and their dependants on the other. There were hardly any merchants; few shopkeepers even in the big towns; very few people conducting business on their own account; few artisans but those in the employ of the lords; and no servants serving for money wages either in the house or in the field. The chief business in life of the landowners was fighting and hunting; that of their dependants, helping them in these pursuits, and tilling the ground for them.

3. Language.—Of course the Normans brought their language with them, and Norman-French became the fashionable tongue in England. And though the Old English (often called Anglo-Saxon) continued to be spoken by the uneducated, and after three hundred years became again the tongue of all Englishmen, it changed a good deal, and got mixed with many French words, which are used by us yet.

4. Manners.—The Normans were much more polished in their ways than the islanders. They combined bravery in fighting with courtesy even to enemies, and thought good soldiers should be chivalrous, and gentle towards all women. Their houses were much tidier and handsomer than those of the English; and the great Norman castles, some of which are still standing, were soon to be seen all over the country. The Normans were fond of fighting on horseback, not out of hatred, but simply to see which of two knights was the best rider and fighter; a trial of this kind of skill was called a tournament. The archers (who were Englishmen) now became an important part of the army. The Normans introduced many new things into England, and changed many old things; but England was England still, and the Normans soon became English themselves.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Land was owned on condition of military service.
2. The Normans were almost the only landowners or nobles.
3. French was the nobles' language; Old English, the people's.
4. The Normans were more polished in their ways than the English.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What did William do with the estates of the English? Did the new owners pay the Conqueror for their land? On what condition was it held?
2. Who were now the nobles? What came of the old English nobles? Whom did the Normans call 'villains'? Were there many merchants, independent tradesmen, or free labourers?
3. What language was spoken by the new nobility? By what other name is the Old English language often called? Was this Old English forgotten by the people?
4. Were the Normans or the English the rougher in their ways? What did the Normans combine with bravery in fighting? What was a tournament?

CHAPTER III.

WILLIAM II. (1087-1100).

1. **His Accession.**—The Conqueror's eldest son was Robert, who became Duke of Normandy; but the second son, William, often called Rufus or the Red, took possession of the crown of England, and kept it. Like his father, William was a brave and skilful soldier, and a cunning politician; but he was more cruel and violent. He had no regard for law or justice; he was a godless and wicked man, and a complete tyrant.

2. **Plot in Robert's Favour.**—By his skill and energy he was able to defeat a plot, headed by his uncle Odo, to place his brother Robert on the throne. The king, who made many promises, was supported by the people, and the chief rebels had to flee. Robert wished soon after this to join the Crusaders, and fight against the Mohammedans in the Holy Land. He agreed for a sum of money to let William govern Normandy for five years.

3. **Quarrel with the Church.**—Anselm, an Italian, a very learned and godly man, was made Archbishop of Canterbury by William, and strove hard to suppress wickedness and promote good in the land. He soon began to find the king's tyrannical and greedy ways intolerable. The king wished to make the bishops wholly subject to his will. He insisted especially on investing them with the staff of office, in token of his own authority over them, and would have them swear fealty to him like knights. This Anselm thought degrading to the church and its bishops, and he refused to allow it to be done. He also declined to give the large and unfair sums of money the king demanded of him. The king then persecuted the archbishop, who at last felt driven to leave England.

4. **Wars.**—William carried on several wars with the yet unsubdued Welsh, and was not very successful; but he suppressed a dangerous rebellion headed by a Norman lord, and more than once had quarrels with Malcolm, the king of Scotland, who was killed at Alnwick. He also carried on a war with the king of France. But his plans were suddenly checked; while hunting in the New Forest, he was pierced by an arrow. One story was that Walter Tyrrel's arrow, missing the stag it was aimed at, hit the king; others thought the tyrant was purposely slain.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. William II., the Conqueror's second son, takes the crown.....	1087
2. He defeats a plot in favour of his brother Robert.....	1090
3. The king quarrels with the church.....	1097
4. William is killed.....	1100

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who was the Conqueror's eldest son? Who was his successor? What kind of man was William Rufus?
2. Who plotted for Robert? Whom did the people support? How did William come to rule Normandy too?
3. Who was Anselm? What kind of man was he? What did he and the king disagree about? Did Anselm yield?
4. With what enemies did William fight? What happened to Malcolm of Scotland? How did William II. die?

CHAPTER IV.

HENRY I. (1100-1135).

1. **Disputed Succession.**—Now that the Red King, the second son of the Conqueror, was dead, we might have expected that the eldest son, Robert, Duke of Normandy, would get the crown. Robert was just on his way back from Palestine, where he had fought famously in the holy war. But Henry, a younger brother, often called Beauclerc or Fine-scholar, seized the chance of Robert's absence, and took possession of the throne. The barons wanted rather to have Robert, and so Henry had to try to please the mass of the people.

2. **Henry's first Measures.**—For this purpose Henry did two things. He promised that some of the old English laws should be restored, that the barons should be bound to do justice to their dependants, and that the church should no longer be plundered by the king. Also, he married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland and Margaret, sister of the English prince Edgar. The English people felt Matilda was of their own race, and loved her, and they liked the king for making her his queen.

3. **Struggle with Robert.**—Thus become popular, Henry awaited calmly his brother's attack. Robert landed (1101) in

England with a large army, but an agreement was come to between the brothers without fighting, and Robert returned to his duchy. But not long after, as Robert failed to keep the agreement, Henry went over to Normandy, and won a great victory at Tenchebray (1106). Thus Normandy became a foreign province of England, and the Normans of England came the more to regard themselves as English, and to look on the Normans of Normandy as foreigners. Poor Duke Robert was sent by his brother to prison, and died after twenty-eight years of captivity. The king of France took up Robert's cause for a while; but at last, after two wars, Henry had his own way.

4. **The Church.**—The great quarrel between the church and the crown still went on. The Archbishop Anselm had been recalled by Henry, but as the new king also insisted on investing the bishops, Anselm left England again. At last they agreed to meet half-way (1106). The king gave up the investiture; and the bishops promised to swear fealty for their lands.

5. **Henry's Heir.**—Henry's son, commonly called by the old princely English name of Ætheling, was returning in 1120 from Normandy, when his ship struck on a rock, and all on board save one man were drowned. The king was broken-hearted; but he was strong enough to make his nobles swear to give the crown, on his death, to his daughter Matilda, widow of the German emperor, Henry V. Matilda chose for her second husband Geoffrey, the powerful Count of Anjou in France.

6. **How Henry ruled England.**—Though the king was often fighting abroad, there was orderly rule in England, and the system of government was becoming settled. Henry was very despotic in his ways, but he endeavoured to secure the administration of strict justice; he severely punished robbery and violence, and established regular courts very much like the courts of England before the Conquest. He died in 1135.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Henry, a younger brother of William II., becomes king..... 1100
2. He promises reform, and marries the princess Matilda.....1100
3. Robert is finally defeated at Tenchebray.....1106
4. The quarrel with the church is settled.....1106
5. The Ætheling is drowned.....1120
6. After a despotic reign of thirty-five years, Henry dies.....1135

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who was the nearest heir to the crown? Who became king?
2. What promises did Henry make? Whom did he marry? Why did the people like the new queen?
3. How did Robert's invasion of England end? At what battle was the struggle brought to an end? What became of Robert?
4. What great quarrel still divided the country? Did Anselm get Henry to yield? How did they settle it at last?
5. Who was the Ætheling? What became of him? Who was now made heir to the king?
6. Did the king's wars prevent regular government? What was the king's character? Were robbers allowed to go unpunished?

CHAPTER V.

STEPHEN (1135-1154).

1. **Choice of a new King.**—The warlike nobles had sworn to obey Matilda much against their will, as they did not like to be ruled by a woman. Now that Henry, of whom they were afraid, was gone, they resolved not to keep the oaths they had been forced to make, and soon had a new candidate for the kingship. Stephen, Earl of Blois in France, was the son of Adela, the daughter of the Conqueror; he had lived much in England, and was a general favourite, being handsome, brave, frank, and generous. Seeing how things were in England, Stephen seized the royal treasures, and by help of his brother, who was Bishop of Winchester, was presently elected king by a council of nobles. In order to win favour he made far too many promises.

2. **The Queen's Party.**—The friends of the ex-Empress Matilda had not been able to do much for her when Stephen was made king. But when they saw that many of the nobles were very angry because the king could not keep his extravagant promises, they began to bestir themselves. The chief of Matilda's supporters was Robert, Duke of Gloucester, an illegitimate son of the late king, and therefore Matilda's half-brother, who first secretly and then openly rebelled against Stephen.

3. **Battle of the Standard.**—Robert persuaded David, king of Scotland, Matilda's uncle, to invade England on her behalf, and David came with a large army into Yorkshire, while Stephen was suppressing a revolt of some barons in the south. The Archbishop

of York, an old but brave man, gathered an English army to meet the invaders. He carried with him to the battle-field near Northallerton the banners of three English saints, mounted on a kind of car; hence the battle that followed was called the Battle of the Standard. The Scots were a mingled host of half-naked Highlanders, well-armed Lowlanders, and a body of knights mostly of Norman descent. They fought fiercely, but after a keen struggle were defeated with great slaughter.

4. **Civil War.**—Fighting between the king's party and the queen's began four years after Stephen became king, and open war went on almost continuously till the year before his death. At first the Duke of Gloucester had the best of it, and Stephen was taken prisoner; then the duke was made a captive by the king's supporters, and the king's party seemed victorious. Fortune changed sides repeatedly; several great pitched battles were fought, and many smaller ones. But at last, after a fearful amount of bloodshed, it was agreed, by help of the church, that Stephen should reign the rest of his life, and that Henry, son of Matilda and the Count of Anjou, should succeed at his death.

5. **State of the Country.**—The king had at his accession given the nobles power almost to do as they chose; they built strong castles, and like so many independent kings made war on one another, plundering everybody who fell into their hands. Even before the great civil war began, things were about as bad as they could be, and could not improve after it broke out. Stephen, who meant well, had no power except over his army, and could hardly be said to govern at all; justice was totally neglected; his reign was a time of universal confusion, fighting, plundering, starvation, and misery indescribable. Stephen died the year after the war came to an end, in 1154.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Stephen is chosen king, and Matilda forsaken.....	1135
2. Robert of Gloucester takes up Matilda's cause	1138
3. David of Scotland is defeated in the Battle of the Standard	1138
4. Civil war wastes the land.....	1139-1153
5. Stephen dies.....	1154

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who was Stephen's ancestor? Why was he chosen king? Why was Matilda rejected?

2. When did Matilda's friends begin to take up her cause? Who was chief amongst them?
 3. Why did the king of Scotland fight for Matilda? Who defended England against him? How did the battle get its name?
 4. How long did the civil war last? Who was successful at first? Afterwards? What was the bargain made at last?
 5. Why was the country so miserable in Stephen's reign? How long did he live after the war?
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CHAPTER VI.

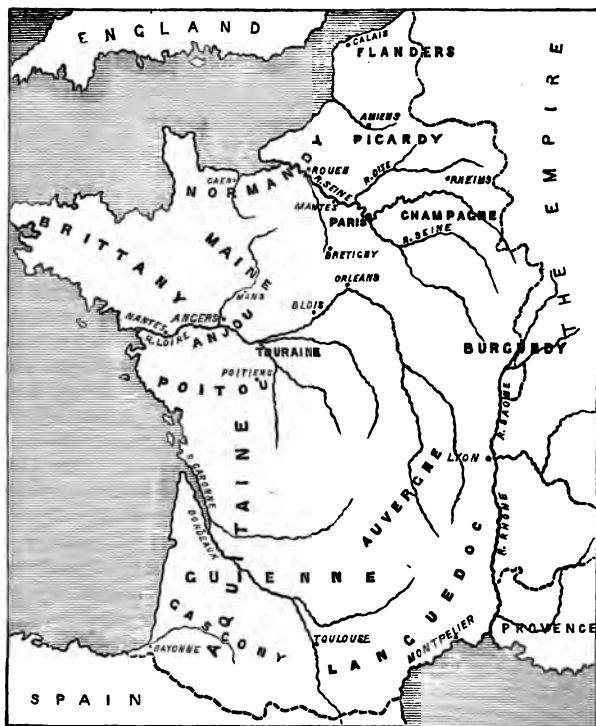
HENRY II (1154-1189).

1. **The First of the Plantagenets.**—The crown now passed, as had been arranged between the rival parties, to Matilda's son, Henry. The young king of England was, by inheritance from his father, lord of the French provinces of Anjou, Touraine, and Maine; his wife was Countess of Poitou and Duchess of Aquitaine; so that, when as king of England he also became Duke of Normandy, he was ruler of a larger part of France than the French king. Henry, then only twenty-one years of age, had already a strongly marked character; he was passionate, obstinate, and reckless; but frank, sagacious, and energetic, whether at business or at hunting. As Earl of Anjou, Henry is the first of the Angevin kings; his family name was *Plantagenet*, from the broom-plant (Lat. *Plantagenista*) worn as a badge by an ancestor of Henry's in the Holy Land.

2. **Reforms.**—For the new king there was plenty of work to do in England. The past reign had been a terrible time of disorder and misrule. Henry set himself to restore good government, to repress the ill-used power of the nobles, and to give the state authority over the church. He expelled the foreign soldiers who had come to seek their fortunes in the late wars, and were now mostly robbers. He besieged and destroyed more than a thousand castles in which nobles lived by pillage and rapine. He compelled many nobles who lived like independent princes to become once more obedient vassals. The royal courts were restored, and the country made subject to them. The king also tried to promote trade. Besides, he had successful wars with the Scots, the still unsubdued Welsh, and the king of France.

3. **Thomas à Becket.**—In all these useful reforms Henry was

greatly assisted by his chancellor, Thomas à Becket. Thomas, son of the mayor of London, was of Norman race, but English by birth and feeling, and was popular with all his fellow-countrymen. He was handsome, able, accomplished, and was the king's most intimate friend and companion. He lived in great state,



Map shewing the English Possessions in France.

and spent a great deal of money ; and, though he was a clergyman, he led a very gay and merry life. But when Henry made Becket Archbishop of Canterbury (1161), the chancellor, who loved ease and fine eating, became as self-denying as the meanest monk. He sent away his crowds of servants, and lived on the

coarsest food; and spent so much time in prayer and good works, that he was soon regarded as a saint.

4. The Power of the Church weakened.—The king wanted now to weaken the power of the priesthood, which, during Stephen's wars, had become greater than the king's. Henry proposed, amongst other changes, that a clergyman accused of a real crime should hereafter be tried publicly by the laws of the land, and not as lately in the bishop's court only. To this Thomas à Becket would by no means agree; he resisted till he was deserted by his followers, and was advised even by the Pope to yield. And at last, sorely against his will, he signed the new arrangements, which were passed at a council held at Clarendon, in Wiltshire, and are called the Constitutions of Clarendon.

5. Becket's renewed Opposition and Death.—By-and-by he began again to oppose these plans of the king, and at last had to flee to France. For six years the struggle between king and archbishop went on with great bitterness, Henry persecuting monks and priests, and Becket retaliating by excommunicating the king's ministers and chief clergy. Then a partial reconciliation took place, and Becket returned to England. But ere long the quarrel burst out again, and came to a height when the king caused his son to be crowned as his heir by the Archbishop of York. Becket protested so vehemently against this that the king, then in France, burst into a passion when he heard of it, and ended a very angry speech by complaining that none of the cowards he fed at his table could free him from this insolent priest. Four knights, taking the angry utterance for a command, went off straight to Canterbury, and slew the archbishop at the steps of the altar (1170).

6. The King's Penance.—This foul murder created universal horror at home and abroad, and excited so much ill-will against Henry that he had reason bitterly to repent his ill-judged words. He solemnly affirmed he had neither commanded nor desired the death of the archbishop; four years after (1174) he did penance at the grave of Becket, and was scourged by eighty clergymen. The slain archbishop, already regarded as a martyr, was afterwards declared a saint by the Pope, and pilgrimages were made by the faithful to the shrine of St Thomas of Canterbury.

7. Conquest of Ireland.—Up till Henry's time, Ireland had been quite separate from England. The Celtic people, speaking their own Irish tongue, did not form one kingdom, but were divided into several little states. The king or chieftain of one

of these, Dermot of Leinster, being expelled from his throne, came to England asking help; and having done homage to Henry, returned to Ireland with English knights and archers, and was followed by the Earl of Pembroke, nicknamed 'Strongbow.' These easily defeated the ill-armed Irish, and took possession of a number of towns and strong places. Henry himself coming to Dublin (1171) received the homage of many native princes.

8. Rebellion of Henry's Sons.—Before his penance, the king had been threatened by serious danger—by foes from without and by enemies within his own household. His son Henry had fled to the king of France, demanding the throne of England, and Louis supported him. Henry's younger sons, Richard and Geoffrey, rose in Aquitaine against their father. In alliance with them the Scots invaded England, and several powerful earls rebelled. But one misty morning, the English commander surprised King William of Scotland and took him prisoner. Henry quite defeated his enemies in France (1174); and before he set the king of Scots free, made him do homage and promise to hold Scotland as a dependency of the king of England.

9. Legislation.—The laws passed in Henry's reign were very important. The nobles now could pay *scutage* or shield-money, instead of serving the king, as of old, in the field with their retainers. This broke the military power of the barons and increased the king's. It was Henry who fairly established the circuits of the judges, making them go round through the five districts of the country and administer justice in each. It was also in this time that the system of trial by jury took shape, not the judge but twelve independent men like the accused deciding whether he is guilty or not. The assize of arms (1181) ordered every freeman to have arms and be ready to defend the country, thus making a national militia.

10. The King's last Troubles.—Henry's last years were made very miserable by renewed rebellions of his sons. He had four wars against his own sons. Henry, the eldest, died in the first of them; Richard, as lord of Aquitaine, was the cause of the other three, being sometimes helped by his brother John and the king of France. Henry's enemies were at last too strong for him; it was impossible that a kingdom made up of England and various parts of France could hold together. Henry had to beg for peace, and died broken-hearted in France.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Henry II., first of the Plantagenets, comes to the throne.....1154
2. He restores order in the state.....1154-1156
3. Thomas à Becket becomes Archbishop of Canterbury.....1161
4. The Constitutions of Clarendon accepted.....1164
5. Becket, after having long opposed the king, is killed.....1170
6. The king does penance.....1174
7. Henry conquers Ireland.....1171-1175
8. Henry defeats his rebellious sons, and the king of Scotland.....1174
9. Scutage, trial by jury, and a militia, are established.....1181
10. Henry, worsted, dies broken in spirit.....1189

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Why was Henry II. called Angevin and Plantagenet? How much of France was his? Was he a weak or a strong king?
2. What work did Henry first attend to? What did he do with the foreign soldiers? What courts were set in action again?
3. Who greatly helped the king? Who was Becket's father? How did Becket live? How did he do when he became archbishop?
4. What did the king wish to do to the church? Did Becket support him as he used to? Which had to yield at last? What were the new arrangements called? Why?
5. Did Becket continue submissive? How long did the new quarrel last? What angry words did the king speak when it began again? How were they understood by the knights?
6. Did the murder relieve the king? Had he wished Becket to be killed? What did he do at Canterbury four years after?
7. When did Ireland become connected with England? How? Who was chief commander of the English?
8. Who were the most troublesome of Henry's enemies? What king helped them? What came of the Scottish invasion?
9. What was Henry's law about scutage? What very important kind of trial began in Henry's reign? What is trial by jury?
10. Was Henry prosperous in his last years? Who fought against him? Which party was successful?

CHAPTER VII.

RICHARD I. (1189-1199).

1. Richard becomes King.—Richard, Henry's son, was a very valiant soldier, but a bad king of England. He was born in England, but he had spent most of his time in France, and after

he became king in 1189, never spent a whole year at home. He loved his own glory more than the happiness of his people. Fighting against his own father was a bad beginning of his soldiering.

2. Preparations for a Crusade.—Richard was determined to lead a crusade or 'war of the cross,' in order to drive the Mohammedans out of the Holy Land. The Turks, who had conquered the Arabs, now possessed Palestine and the holy places to which Christians from all parts of Europe made pilgrimage. These pilgrims were often cruelly ill-used by the Turks; and the kings and princes of Europe had before Richard's time twice made 'holy wars' against the infidels. Richard and Philip of France were leaders of the third crusade. To raise an army for this purpose, the king required large sums of money. These he obtained in the most unscrupulous way, extorting much by force, and selling all the honourable appointments, such as judgeships and bishoprics, for money. For 10,000 crowns he relieved the king of Scots from the oath by which he became dependent on England.

3. The Third Crusade.—When he had in this way amassed money enough, he started for Palestine, going through France and by Sicily and Cyprus. This latter island he conquered, and gave to a French knight. After nearly twelve months he arrived in the Holy Land (1191), and helped Philip in besieging Acre. Richard, now known as *Cœur-de-Lion*, the lion-hearted, performed extraordinary feats of valour and strength. After dreadful loss by sword and pestilence, the crusaders captured the town (1191). Philip, who had quarrelled with Richard, returned home, and Richard led 30,000 soldiers to Jerusalem. He defeated the brave Sultan Saladin near Ashdod; but ere he reached Jerusalem he was compelled by the sickness in his camp to give up all hope of taking the holy city. After another victorious battle, he set out for England, choosing to go almost alone and in disguise through Austria. But near Vienna he was taken prisoner by the Duke of Austria, and kept in captivity by the Emperor of Germany. Not till 1194 was he released, and then the emperor had to get as ransom a sum of money large enough to impoverish all England.

4. Home Affairs.—Meanwhile England had been in a miserable condition through misgovernment. John, the king's brother, not merely sought to have the government while Richard was away, but even tried to take Richard's crown to himself; and

this caused much fighting. The Jews in England had been horribly oppressed and maltreated.

5. War with France.—Richard, on his return, forgave his treacherous brother, but determined to do his utmost against Philip of France, who had deserted him in Palestine, and had been leagued with John against him. The English king fought several campaigns in France, and there he met his death, being shot by an arrow while besieging the castle of Chaluz (1199). During his reign, misgovernment had been perpetual, and the wealth of the country had been squandered on useless wars.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Richard I. crowned.....	1189
2. He raises money for a crusade.....	1189
3. He arrives in Palestine, and besieges Acre.....	1191
Made prisoner on his way home, he is ransomed.....	1194
4. In his absence, England is oppressed and misruled.....	1190-1194
5. He is killed, fighting against Philip in France.....	1199

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What kind of king was Richard? What was he good at?
2. What was the first thing Richard set about? What is a 'crusade'? How did he get money for the war?
3. Through what countries did the king pass? What did Philip of France do? Why did Richard give up the war? What happened on his way home?
4. What went on in England while Richard was away? Who made most of the mischief? What people were most cruelly treated?
5. Where and how was Richard killed?

CHAPTER VIII.

JOHN (1199-1216).

1. Rival Claim to the Crown and loss of the French Provinces.—Richard left his crown to John, his youngest but only surviving brother. But an elder brother, Geoffrey, had left a son, Arthur; and the English provinces in France wished to make Arthur king. In the war which arose, Arthur was captured and imprisoned in Rouen; and as he was never heard of more, it was believed he had been murdered by his uncle's

command, or perhaps by his uncle's own hands. But John had the worst of the war. Normandy, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, and Poitou, which had been English, now, as was most natural, preferred France to England, and acknowledged the authority of Philip (1202-1206). John, nicknamed Lackland, now held only Aquitaine in the south of France. Yet, though the loss was thought by the English to be a great disaster and disgrace, it was a real gain to England. It made the Norman families in England forget that their old home was in France; they became quite truly English now, and very soon all inhabitants of England looked on England as their home. King John deserves no credit for this, of course; he was justly detested by his people, as he perpetually pillaged them, taking large sums of money from rich and poor without excuse.

2. **Quarrel with the Pope.**—John had soon a great quarrel with the Pope. The Pope appointed Stephen Langton, a distinguished Englishman, Archbishop of Canterbury: John defied the Pope, and insisted on having another person appointed. The Pope put England under an 'Interdict,' so that for five years the priests could not conduct any of the services of the church, except baptism and a service for dying men; and as the king still continued obstinate, the Pope 'excommunicated' the king, cutting him off from all connection with the Christian church.

3. **John's Submission to the Pope.**—The Pope at last ordered the king of France to remove John, now no longer a Christian king, from his throne. Hated by his people, John felt that he stood alone; and when he found his nobles conspiring against him, he saw that he must submit. He not only acknowledged Langton as archbishop, but gave up his English crown to the pope, to receive it back as a gift from Rome. This enraged the people more than anything else their king had done; and when John returned from an unsuccessful war with France, he found the barons sworn to secure from him all the ancient liberties of Englishmen.

4. **John's Submission to his People.**—Stephen Langton, the new archbishop, was the leader in the struggle against the king's tyranny. At a great meeting in St Paul's in London, the barons laid their plans, and, having solemnly bound themselves by an oath, they came before the king at Christmas time and demanded the observance of the promises made by Henry I. at his coronation, and the good old laws of Edward the Confessor. The whole country, nobles and commons, rose against the

obstinate king ; and after a time he was compelled, with bitter rage in his heart, to yield.

5. *At Runnymede.*—In the summer of 1215 there was a meeting between John and his barons at Runnymede, a meadow on the Thames, not far from Windsor ; and after a little discussion, John agreed to all that was asked of him, and signed *Magna Charta*, the great charter. This famous document bound the kings of England to grant to their people many of the chief privileges which free Englishmen still enjoy, and if faithfully observed made kingly tyranny impossible. It was the barons who conquered the king, but they worked for the good of all the people, rich and poor.

6. *Magna Charta.*—Some of the chief things settled by *Magna Charta* were these : The king was not to demand or exact sums of money from his people without leave of the Great Council of the nation, or parliament. That council was to be called together regularly and often. No freeman might be imprisoned or have his goods taken from him except by the judgment of his equals, or by the law of the land. Nobody, not even the villain or serf, was hereafter to be heavily fined for a small offence.

7. *Attempt to withdraw the Charter.*—John had solemnly bound himself to observe all this, and to give up his unjust and tyrannical ways ; but he never really meant it. He got the Pope to say the charter was not to be kept, and raised a great army of hired soldiers, mostly foreigners, to help him to defy the barons and break his promises. The barons had to beseech the help of Louis, now king of France, and almost offered him the crown. John was marching against the French king when his army was overtaken by the tide on the shores of the Wash, and the baggage and his treasure were all lost. John's despair helped to bring on a fever, of which he died.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. John accedes to the throne..... | 1199 |
| Normandy and Maine are lost to England..... | 1202-1206 |
| 2. John quarrels with the Pope..... | 1207 |
| 3. He submits to the Pope..... | 1213 |
| 4. He submits to his people. | |
| 5. He has to yield to the barons, and signs <i>Magna Charta</i> | 1215 |
| 6. <i>Magna Charta</i> grants rights to all the people. | |
| 7. Having broken his promise, he dies at war with his people.... | 1216 |

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Whom did some of John's subjects wish to be king? What became of Arthur? What did Normandy and the English parts of France do? Was this really bad for England?
2. What brought about the quarrel with the Pope? How did the Pope punish John for defying him?
3. What state of affairs at home induced John to yield to the Pope? Did he make full submission? What did he do besides receiving the new archbishop?
4. Who took the lead in resisting John's tyranny at home? What did the barons demand of the king?
5. Where was an agreement come to? What did John sign?
6. What was settled about the king's raising money? about the Great Council? about imprisoning of freemen? about fines?
7. Was John meaning to keep his promises? Whom did the barons ask to help them? How did John die?

CHAPTER IX.

HENRY III. (1216-1272).

1. **The King's Boyhood.**—John left a son, Henry, ten years old. Now that their oppressor John was dead, the barons began to dislike the idea of a French king, and gathered round young Henry, who was crowned king of England. The French were defeated in several battles, and Louis had to go home. But the country was in great confusion and misery, owing to John's bad government and the war; and Henry's first great minister, Hubert de Burgh, had a hard task in establishing order again, and in seeing that justice was administered. The king was eager to recover the possessions in France lost by his father. Before the nobles would agree to give the money needed for invading France, they made the king swear to keep Magna Charta. The war was, however, a failure, and the blame was laid on De Burgh, who had all along been opposed to going to war at all. Hubert's ruin was completed by the clergy, towards whom he had been rather severe, and all his high offices were taken from him (1232).

2. **French Favourites.**—England was now governed by the young and foolish king, and by his favourites. Henry had married (1236) a queen from Provence in France. Many of her relations

and large numbers of other Frenchmen came to England, were enriched by the king, and appointed to very many of the great honours of the state; and England was really governed by foreigners ignorant of its laws. In spite of the charter, the king begged, borrowed, and extorted large sums of money. The misery and indignation of the people, rich and poor, were increased by new exactions made by emissaries of the Pope (1246-1257), who, with power of excommunication, pillaged the church even during a sore famine. The king had more than once sworn to observe the charter; neither barons nor people could make him keep his word. The church now joined the barons to demand a reform.

3. **Simon de Montfort.**—Simon de Montfort, himself originally a French noble, who had married the king's sister, became Earl of Leicester. Filled with love for the liberties of his adopted country, and disgusted by the misrule going on all around, he headed the barons in an attempt to devise a plan for compelling the king to govern by the charter. A council of the realm drew up (1258) a new scheme for government by help of regular parliaments, called the 'Provisions of Oxford.' The government was put into the hands of a commission appointed partly by the king, partly by the barons; and the castles were taken from the foreigners that possessed them.

4. **Civil War again.**—As before, the king was still unwilling to keep his solemn vows; and the nobles were unhappily divided amongst themselves. The matters in dispute were referred to the king of France, who decided for Henry, and annulled the Provisions of Oxford. This raised a war between the barons and the king; De Montfort, backed by a large part of the nation, was resolute. In a great battle at Lewes (1264), he utterly defeated the royal army, and received the surrender of the king and of his warlike son, Prince Edward, who was kept a prisoner.

5. **The Reformed Parliament.**—In 1265, Earl Simon summoned a parliament, which more closely resembled the parliaments of modern England than any that had yet been held. He invited not merely the earls and barons and the knights of the shire, but also two burghers from all the chief towns. The knights of the shire and the representatives from the towns corresponded of course to the present House of Commons; but then they sat in the same chamber with the nobles.

6. **Simon overthrown.**—Simon de Montfort's power was unhappily of short duration. He governed well; but many of the

other lords were envious of him. Prince Edward, escaping from his guardians, raised an army, and at Evesham met and completely defeated (1265) the supporters of Earl Simon and parliamentary government. Earl Simon was slain on the field. Severity was shewn to the vanquished leaders; but good government was established; Magna Charta was observed, and none except Englishmen were allowed to have high offices.

7. **King's Death.**—Prince Edward departed on a crusade to Palestine, but was ere long recalled by news of the death of his father (1272). The reign of Henry was long; it was a time of important events, but was far from prosperous. The king was accomplished and clever, and a friend to poetry and learning; but he was weak and fickle, and shamefully fond of luxury.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Hubert de Burgh governs for Henry III.....	1218-1232
2. England begins to be flooded by foreigners.....	1236
3. Simon de Montfort and the patriotic party are successful.....	1258
4. Civil war breaks out, and the king is defeated.....	1264
5. A great parliament is held.....	1265
6. The king's party triumph again at Evesham.....	1265
7. The king dies.....	1272

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How old was the new king? Who was the chief man in England during the king's youth? How did Hubert lose his power?
2. Who was now ruler? What did the English complain of after Hubert's fall? What brought many foreigners to England? Who led the barons? What did they demand? What were the Provisions of Oxford? To whom was the government given?
3. What made the church take a side against the king?
4. To whom were the disputed points referred? How did the French king decide? What followed? Who was victorious?
5. Who were invited to the parliament of 1265?
6. Who raised an army again for the king? What happened at the battle of Evesham? How was the government now managed?
7. Where did Prince Edward go? What made him come back? What good things were there about the king's character?

CHAPTER X.

EDWARD I. (1272-1307).

1. The King's Character.—Edward was the first king since the Norman Conquest who bore an old English name. He was also the first who was thoroughly English in his character and his wishes. Even though he and his subjects sometimes disagreed, he was much respected by his barons and greatly beloved by his people. He liked to have the power in his own hands, but was content to be advised; he tried to do what was fair and lawful to all his subjects except the Jews, whom he expelled from England.

2. Home Affairs.—The first part of Edward's reign (1272-1279) is chiefly occupied with the making of good laws, seeing that they were carried out, and punishing bad judges. Parliaments were held pretty often, and before the end of the reign were like Earl Simon's; they contained knights, citizens, and burgesses, commons as well as lords. In fact, England began now to be England as we know it; the people were a united nation, though French was still the fashionable language.

3. Wales.—From the beginning, Edward, though still lord of Aquitaine, gave up thoughts of trying to conquer back the lost French possessions, but one of his chief aims in life was to unite all Britain in one kingdom of England. He began with Wales. Llewellyn, Prince of North Wales, refused to do homage to Edward, but was compelled to yield; and when he and his brother revolted again, Wales was, after a year or two of hard fighting, made part of England (1284). Edward called his eldest son Prince of Wales, and this title has ever since belonged to the eldest son of the English sovereign.

4. Scotland.—Edward sought to join Scotland to England peacefully. It was settled that his son should marry the granddaughter and heiress of the Scottish king, Alexander III. But when she died before the marriage, thirteen relations of the late king claimed the crown, and the dispute was referred to Edward. The two who had the best right to the throne of Scotland were both English noblemen—John Balliol and Robert Bruce. Balliol was grandson of the eldest daughter of David, brother of King William the Lion; Bruce was son of a second

daughter. Edward decided for Balliol; and Balliol did homage, and held his crown as a vassal of the English king (1292). He and his people soon became ashamed of this, and resolved to be independent. An English army invaded Scotland and speedily conquered it; Edward took possession of the country as having been forfeited by a disobedient vassal; and the nobility all did homage to him as their new lord (1296).

5. Wallace.—But though the nobles—many of them really Englishmen—had submitted, the Scottish people were not content to become the servants of a foreign king. William Wallace headed them in their defence of Scottish freedom; and in a great battle at Stirling Bridge (1297), without help of the nobility, defeated Earl Warrenne, the English governor of Scotland. Wallace drove the English across the Border, cruelly ravaging the north of England, and was proclaimed Guardian of Scotland. The Scots thought they had been fighting against a foreign usurper; Edward regarded them as rebels who had promised to obey him, and, mightily enraged, marched northward. At Falkirk the armies met (1298); and though the Scots fought bravely, they were completely crushed. Edward sternly suppressed all resistance. The patriot leader, betrayed into his hands, was executed as a traitor at London (1305).

6. Troubles about Taxation.—A quarrel with France had arisen; and to cover the great expenses of this and his other wars, Edward was driven to try the plan that had made his father's reign so unhappy; he took whatever money he could make—any excuse for taking, and laid on taxes without the consent of parliament. This led to eager and stubborn resistance; and at last, while fighting in Flanders, the king had to give way (1301).

7. Bruce.—Before Edward's new system of government in conquered Scotland had time to take root, the Scots were again in arms against the usurper. This time they were led by Robert Bruce, grandson of the Bruce who in Balliol's time had claimed the crown. The news of this third revolt enraged Edward more than ever; and though old and weak, he hastened north once more with a large army. But death overtook him (1307) near the Border, at Burgh-on-Sands on the Solway.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Edward I., a real Englishman, succeeds.....1272
2. He makes and enforces good laws.....1272-1279

3. He conquers Wales.....	1284
4. He subdues and annexes Scotland.....	1295
5. Wallace heads the Scots, but is defeated at Falkirk.....	1298
6. The king yields to parliament.....	1301
7. Marching against Bruce, Edward dies	1307

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Did Edward's character suit his name? Was he a strong king or a weak one? Towards whom was he cruel?
2. Were any new laws passed by Edward? What was done with bad judges? What sort of parliaments had he?
3. What was Edward's great wish? Who was Prince of North Wales just now? What was the end of the Welsh war?
4. How did Edward at first think of joining Scotland to England? What hindered this scheme? How many claimants were there now? Which were the most important? For whom did Edward decide? What happened to Balliol?
5. Who led the Scottish people next? Where did he gain a victory? Where was he defeated? What became of Wallace?
6. What bad step did Edward take about getting money? Why did he need so much money? Who gave in?
7. Who was next leader of the Scots? Who led the next English army towards Scotland? Where did Edward die?

CHAPTER XI.

EDWARD II. (1307-1327).

1. Another weak King.—The son of the valiant and famous Edward I. turned out to be a weak and worthless prince, who was perpetually under the power of favourites. He was more anxious to have his own way in England, and to thwart his barons, than to subdue Scotland; and so the war was soon and very unsatisfactorily brought to an end.

2. Gaveston.—The king put at the head of the government an old companion of his own, a foreigner called Piers Gaveston. The stranger was soon bitterly hated by all England, but especially by the nobility, whom he soon got dismissed from all posts of honour, and laughed at besides. At last the parliament insisted on his being sent away. He was, however, soon recalled, and

made himself more hated than before. The barons were determined to be rid of him. The government was put for a time in the hands of a commission, who drew up 'ordinances' for better government. In these it was arranged that parliament should meet every year, and that war should not be declared without the consent of the barons. Edward had to yield, and Gaveston was banished. Next time he returned, he was caught at Scarborough and beheaded (1312).

3. **Bannockburn.**—Bruce had now become actually king of Scotland. All the castles except that of Stirling were in his hands; and to save it Edward at last marched north with a well-appointed army. At Bannockburn, near Stirling, Bruce met him (1314) with a much smaller force, chiefly footmen. By digging pits in front of his army, Bruce made it difficult for the great mass of English cavalry to fight; and after a long and sore battle, the appearance of a crowd of Scottish camp-followers dismayed the English, and made them think a new army was coming to help Bruce. The English broke and fled; and in the end England made a truce with Scotland for fourteen years.

4. **Le Despenser.**—Edward still squandered power and wealth on unworthy favourites. The new one was Hugh le Despenser, and the Earl of Lancaster was the leader of the barons in opposition to him. When Lancaster rose in arms, however, he was defeated, caught, and beheaded (1322). A new parliament changed the ordinances to suit the king; and to spite the barons, decreed that the whole realm, including commons, should be consulted by the king.

5. **Quarrel between the King and Queen.**—Edward had married the sister of the king of France. The queen was sent to Paris to settle a quarrel between the two countries, but refused to come back when the king asked her. At last she came with an army, which many of the barons joined. She was supported by all who disliked the favourite and the king's ways, including the church. The king and Despenser fled to Wales, but were caught; Despenser and many of his friends were hanged, and the king was imprisoned. The parliament declared that Edward was unworthy to rule, and deposed him. Edward, who could not help himself, agreed to his own deposition. A few months afterwards, it was known that the disrowned king was dead; how he came by his death was never well known, but it was believed he had been murdered (1327).

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. The feeble Edward II. succeeds his father.....1307
2. Piers Gaveston, his favourite, is executed.....1312
3. Bruce defeats Edward at Bannockburn.....1314
4. Le Despenser, another favourite, is beheaded.....1322
5. The king, having been deposed, is put to death.....1327

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Was Edward II. like his father? What happened in the war just begun by Edward I?
2. Who soon was chief man in the kingdom? Why was he hated? How often was he dismissed? What were the 'ordinances'? What was the end of Gaveston?
3. How many of the Scottish castles had Bruce been allowed to retake? Where did Edward at last fight with him? What finally turned the English to flight?
4. Who was the second royal favourite? What did the Earl of Lancaster do? How did the new parliament act?
5. What took the queen to France? How did she come back? Who joined her? What came of Despenser? Of the king?

CHAPTER XII.

EDWARD III. (1327-1377).

1. **The King's Boyhood.**—The dethroned king's son, Edward III., was only fourteen years of age, and too young to reign; so the kingdom was governed at first by the young king's mother and her favourite, Lord Mortimer. One of the first things they did was, after a Scottish invasion, to acknowledge Scotland as an independent kingdom and Bruce as its king. This treaty of Northampton was very much disliked in England.

2. **The King begins to govern.**—This treaty and the haughtiness and selfishness of Mortimer caused him to be greatly hated. Edward soon took the authority into his own hands, and had Mortimer put to death (1330). Edward III. was a brave and able prince, but though many good laws were made, England was brought to great misery by wars.

3. **Edward Balliol.**—The son of the deposed king of Scotland made an attempt to recover the throne, was at first successful,

and was crowned king. Edward Balliol acknowledged Edward III. of England as his liege lord, and was supported by the English against Bruce's party. An English army besieged Berwick, and wholly defeated a large Scottish army at Halidon Hill (1333). Berwick has never since been part of Scotland. But the English king had soon to leave his namesake in Scotland to his fate; the great French war was about to begin.

4. **The French War.**—The French kings had taken the opportunity, when the English were engaged in war with Scotland, to try to force England to give up Aquitaine, the only part of France which still belonged to her; they had also helped the Scots. But the chief cause of quarrel between France and England was the claim Edward made to be king of the whole of France. For when the French king, Charles IV., died, Edward said he had a right to succeed him as son of Charles's sister; Philip of Valois, who actually became king, was the late king's cousin. Edward declared war against France in 1337; and this war, with intervals, lasted so long as to be called the Hundred Years' War. England was drained of men and money to ravage France; the fairest and most fertile parts of France became an utter desolation.

5. **Cressy.**—The first important event in the war was a sea-fight at Sluys on the coast of Flanders. This made England 'mistress of the sea' for the first time. There was much indecisive fighting for six years, during which time England was partly assisted by the Emperor of Germany and the Flemish cities. At last a great battle took place. Edward landed in Normandy, ravaged the country towards Paris, and then marched for Calais. At Cressy (or Crecy) he resolved to give battle to the French. On Sunday afternoon, 26th August 1346, a French army nearly four times as large came in sight of the 30,000 Englishmen, who were posted on a slope. The French, under their king, Philip, though tired with a long march, were confident in their numbers, and advanced in disorder to attack the English. Footmen and archers were now the strength of the English army, and at Cressy the English cavalry also fought on foot. Half the army was under the command of Edward's son, known from his armour as the Black Prince. The swift and sure shooting of the English archers produced great havoc amongst the hastily advancing French, a panic followed, and before night the vast French army was fleeing in confusion. All night and next day the slaughter was dreadful. More

French were slain than there were men in the English army; and among them were many of the noblest Frenchmen. Covered with the glory of so remarkable a victory, the English marched on to Calais and besieged it. After nearly a year the defenders, forced by famine, surrendered; and Calais became and long continued an English possession.

6. Neville's Cross.—The Scots invaded England in alliance with France; but two months after the battle of Cressy the English gained a complete victory over them at Neville's Cross, near Durham, again chiefly by the skill of the English archers. The Scottish king, David, Bruce's son, was taken prisoner.

7. The Black Death.—In 1348 a terrible pestilence, commonly called the Black Death, reached England. Its ravages were fearful; it is thought that not less than a third of the whole population of the country were cut off by this plague.

8. Pottiers.—In 1355 the Black Prince, starting from the English dominions in Aquitaine, made a raid into France with an army of 14,000 men, plundered a large district, and burned in seven weeks more than 500 French towns and villages. At Poitiers or Poitou he came suddenly (1356) on a French army of 60,000 men. But the skill with which he posted his archers on both sides of the narrow way by which the French advanced, and the bravery of the soldiers, won another famous victory for England. The French king, John, Philip's son, was taken prisoner, with his son and many princes and nobles. France was desolated and England exhausted by these bloody wars. A treaty was made at Breigny in 1360, by which it was agreed that Edward should no longer claim to be king of France, but should have Aquitaine as his own. Peace was also made with Scotland. David was ransomed; but John died in captivity, France being now too poor to pay the ransom that had been promised.

9. War again.—War with France broke out again in 1369. The Black Prince won several victories in the south of France, but became so ill that he had to go home. England no longer had good fortune; in five years she had lost all Aquitaine, except Bordeaux and Bayonne. These towns, with Calais, were all that now remained of her once vast possessions in France.

10. Home Affairs.—The king had sunk into his dotage. The people of England, reduced to starvation by taxes for a war which had at last only brought disgrace, determined to put a stop to the oppression that had ruined them. Hitherto the

leaders in the cause of liberty against tyranny had been the barons. Now it was the burghers, joined in parliament with the knights of the shire to form the lower house, who denounced the mismanagement of the country by the council of nobles who really governed. The commons now united against the barons. At the *Good Parliament* of 1376, grievous complaints were made especially against the unfair taxation, and many abuses were remedied. The old demand for annual parliaments was made and agreed to. The head of the barons came to be John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the king's fourth son. The Black Prince favoured the reformers. But the prince died the year before his father; and when the unhappy old king died in 1377, the power was again in the hands of the greedy and selfish barons, who were thinking of plundering the church.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Edward III. succeeds his father when fourteen years old.....1327
2. The king assumes the power and executes Mortimer.....1330
3. He supports Edward Balliol, and conquers at Halidon Hill...1333
4. He declares war with France.....1337
5. He gains the great victory of Cressy.....1346
6. The Scots are defeated at Neville's Cross.....1346
7. The Black Death ravages England.....1348
8. The Black Prince defeats the French at Poitiers.....1356
9. Aquitaine is lost to England.....1369-1374
10. Reforms are conceded at the Good Parliament.....1376
- Edward III. dies.....1377

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How old was the new king Edward III. ? Who governed at first? What treaty did they make with Scotland ?
2. When did the king seize the power? What happened to Mortimer? What kind of king was Edward III. ?
3. Who was Edward Balliol? Where did the English defeat those in Scotland? Who were his enemies?
4. What led to the great French war? What right had Edward III. to the crown of France?
5. What was the first sea-fight? The great victory on land? How many English were there? What became of Calais?
6. What was the result of the Scottish invasion in 1346?
7. What was the Black Death? How many persons did it cut off?
8. How many soldiers had the Black Prince at Poitiers? How many French were there? How did the battle go? Who were taken prisoners? What was done at Brittany?

9. What happened to the Black Prince in the next war? How did it go with England?
10. What was the condition of the people at home? Why was the parliament of 1376 called the 'Good Parliament'?

CHAPTER XIII

RICHARD II. (1377-1399).

1. *State of Things when Richard became King.*—England had again a boy king. Richard, son of the Black Prince, was but ten years old when his grandfather died. The government was managed by a council of lords. The rulers of the country quarrelled amongst themselves, and for selfish purposes. The clergy were ignorant, idle, and very rich. The people of England were discontented with their rulers; and many were even more discontented with the state of the church.

2. *Wicliffe.*—The greedy nobles, with John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster at their head, had defeated the plans of the Good Parliament; but for their own ends they wanted to get some of the power and wealth of the church. Yet all their schemes of plunder would have done the corrupt church less harm than did the teaching and the books of an Oxford scholar, John Wicliffe by name. Though Wicliffe did not approve of Lancaster's selfish aims, he was glad to have his protection when he was denouncing the laziness and ungodliness of the priests, and the uselessness of the begging friars. He thought priests should be dismissed from posts in the government, and that the church lands should be taxed. Wicliffe was not silenced when the duke turned against him, and in 1381 he even opposed some of the doctrines of the church; thus he was a forerunner of Luther and the Reformers in the sixteenth century. He was denounced by the Pope and condemned by a church council, but went on writing and teaching. His chief work was his translation of the Bible into English, done partly by himself, partly by his scholars. He died in 1384, but had time to make a very large number of the people, of all ranks and classes, his faithful followers. These were afterwards persecuted under the name of Lollards.

3. *Wat Tyler.*—The expenses of the great French war, continued without success in this reign, made the government try every means, just and unjust, to raise money. When it was

decreed that everybody above fifteen years old should pay a poll-tax of a certain sum, a great rebellion of the country-people took place (1381) under a tile-maker called Walter, and hence known as Wat Tyler. He was helped by two poor priests called Jack Straw and John Ball. The whole of south-east England was in arms, and Wat led an army of 100,000 men to London. They were furious against the idleness and luxury of the rich people, and demanded that villanage or serfdom should be abolished. They killed some of the great people and burned a few of their houses, but they did not rob or plunder. The government was frightened, and granted all the demands of the rebels. Then most of them went home; but some of them, with Wat Tyler at their head, waited to meet the king next day. The lord mayor of London thought Wat was going to strike the king, and stabbed the rebel captain. Wat's followers were enraged, and would have revenged his death but for the bold and friendly behaviour of the young king, who promised to be himself their leader. This pleased the rebels, and they followed their neighbours home. Sad to say, all the promises and the pardons agreed to were revoked by the king, and large numbers of the rebels were put to death.

4. *The King governing.*—In 1388 the king suddenly took into his own hands the authority, which had latterly belonged to his youngest uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, and began to govern his kingdom. For seven years he governed well, but was not very popular. He made a long truce with France, which was much disliked by many; and by his unforgiving spirit towards those he thought had not behaved well towards himself, he made many dangerous enemies. He put to death several powerful nobles, his uncle Gloucester among them; and banished his cousin Henry, son of the Duke of Lancaster. By-and-by he became really tyrannical towards the whole country; he got parliament to let him levy a tax on all wool going out of the kingdom, and then governed without help of the parliament at all. He became an absolute king, and began to raise forced loans. In 1399 he unwisely went to Ireland to subdue it. Henry, his banished cousin, now by the death of his father Duke of Lancaster, took this chance to come back to England, demanding his father's estates, which the king had seized. He landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, was joined by the north country earls and all Richard's enemies, and before Richard knew anything about it, was really king of England. Richard

was given up to Henry and deposed by parliament. Next year Richard died or was killed in prison at Pontefract.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Richard becomes king under unpromising circumstances.....1377
2. Wicliffe denounces some of the doctrines of the church.....1381
3. The peasants rebel under Wat Tyler.....1381
4. The king is despotic.....1388-1399

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How old was Richard II. ? What aims had the lords when they quarrelled ? Did the people respect the church ?
2. Who was chief among the nobles ? What did John Wicliffe speak and write against ? What was the chief book he worked at ? By what name were Wicliffe's disciples called ?
3. What provoked the rebellion ? Who were leaders ? What did the rebels chiefly want ? What did the government do ?
4. How did the king govern ? How did he make bitter enemies ? What did his cousin do ? What became of Richard ?

CHAPTER XIV.

CHANGES IN THE CONDITION OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE.

1. **The English Nation.**—Great changes had by the time of Richard II. taken place since the Norman Conquest. England was no longer a country where Normans speaking French had all the power and wealth, and the bulk of the English-speaking nation had to regard the lords of the soil as foreign oppressors. By the time of Edward I. all natives of England felt like Englishmen. All classes in the community now strove to defend their rights and obtain their share of political power.

2. **Language.**—French was still a fashionable language with the nobility ; but in Edward I.'s days, English was made the language of the courts of law. English was greatly changed, however, from what it was before the Normans came ; a very great many Norman-French words were adopted into it, and have formed part of English ever since. The poet Chaucer was the first great writer who knew skilfully how to combine the two portions of the language we still speak.

3. **Trade.**—England had come to have an important trade with the continent. The chief goods exported from England were wool, sheep-skins, leather, and a little lead and tin. It was not yet a manufacturing country; a little coarse cloth was made at home. All luxuries came from abroad. England possessed by this time many ships, but they were mostly quite small. They traded as far as the Baltic, but chiefly with the Low Countries (Holland and Belgium), France, and Spain. Trade with India and the East was in the hands of the Genoese and the Venetians; America was not yet discovered.

4. **Wealth.**—Nevertheless, England had become much richer. Houses were made much handsomer and more comfortable, though, even in larger towns, most of the houses were built of mud and clay. Edward I. had carpets on his floors, though it was long after usual to have rushes sprinkled on the floors of the best houses. People were so fond of fine clothes, that Richard II. passed a law arranging that only nobles should wear silk and the finest cloth; the wealthy commoners, only clothes of the next quality; and so on. About the same time people wore shoes with toes so ridiculously long, that when they walked out, they had to tie the toes of their shoes to their knees.

5. **Nobility.**—The nobles were not now all powerful. The commoners had a large share of power and wealth. It was not necessary for everybody to be ready to fight for his liege lord. People got off from military service by paying money; nobles paid their retainers; soldiers were hired for wages.

6. **Towns.**—Many towns had become large and prosperous, and took the opportunity of buying charters from the king, relieving them from military and other duties towards the feudal lords of the region, and permitting them to choose magistrates.

7. **Commons.**—The commons, who began to take a large share in the government, and came to occupy one of the Houses of Parliament, were not the whole of the people except the nobles. They were chiefly landholders and wealthy townspeople. They generally agreed very well with the nobility, and helped them to limit the power of the king; and they did not greatly trouble themselves about the poorer sort of people.

8. **The Poorer Classes.**—These were nevertheless much better off during the latter years of this period. Serfdom and villanage had nearly disappeared; there were now plenty of free labourers, who did work for hire. They were not very kindly

treated by the wealthier people, and sometimes were very discontented. But, on the whole, they were far happier than they had been under the early Norman kings.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. The two races in England had combined by the time of Edward I.
2. English became more and more the universal language.
3. England had a foreign trade, exporting wool, skins, and metal.
4. Wealth and luxury had increased amongst all classes.
5. The nobles lost by degrees their supremacy.
6. The towns obtained charters of self-government.
7. The commons obtained their share of power.
8. Villanage disappeared, and labourers worked for wages.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What was the relation of English and Normans now?
2. How had the English language been changed? Who was the first great author in the new English?
3. Had England any manufactures yet? What goods did it send abroad? Did English ships sail yet to India and Africa?
4. How were English houses improved? What kind of clothes were now worn?
5. How had the nobles become less powerful?
6. How had many towns become more important?
7. Who were the commons of whom one hears in the days of the three Edwards? Whom did they generally side with?
8. Who had taken the place of serfs and 'villains'? Were the labourers kindly treated? Were they better off?

CHAPTER XV.

HENRY IV. (1399-1413).

1. A King by Choice.—Henry, having been Duke of Lancaster before he became king, is the first king of the House of Lancaster. He is sometimes called Henry Bolingbroke because he was born at Bolingbroke in Lincoln. He was not the nearest representative of the royal family even after Richard's death. Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, was descended from the Duke of Clarence, a son of Edward III., elder than John of Gaunt, Henry IV.'s father. Henry had no right to reign except that parliament was content to choose him; and he was afraid

all his life that some day parliament might choose somebody else to take his place. He therefore kept Mortimer a prisoner, and tried all he could to please the parliament, without attempting to raise money or do anything against its will.

2. *Persecution.*—Henry gained the favour and support of the church by promising to suppress the Lollards. Two years after he became king he passed a bloody law enforcing religious persecution, the first in English history. It required bishops to apprehend all who had heretical opinions or heretical books, and if they continued in heresy, to give them over to the criminal officers to be burned to death. The first Lollard martyr was William Sawtre, a priest.

3. *War and Rebellion.*—The king had little peace to enjoy the crown he had usurped. He had difficulties first with Scotland. Then Owen Glendower, a Welsh gentleman, roused the Welsh people to one more desperate struggle for national freedom. This was bad enough; but the danger to Henry was greatly increased when he quarrelled with the Duke of Northumberland and his warlike son, Henry Percy, called Hotspur. These Percies, who had helped Henry to the crown and had defeated a Scottish invasion, now joined the Welsh rebels, and gained the help of the famous Scottish Earl Douglas. Henry was, however, able to defeat them in a hard-fought battle at Shrewsbury (1403). Hotspur was killed, but his father lived to take part in other two rebellions. The Welsh were no longer very terrible; but it took four years of fighting to recover South Wales to England; and though often defeated, Owen and his followers maintained the struggle in the mountains till Owen's death. Henry suppressed the other two rebellions of Northumberland; and when he captured James, the young king of Scotland, he felt safe from enemies at home.

4. *The King's Last Years.*—During these years of trouble the king had been very friendly to parliament, and had allowed the kingly power to be carefully limited. After he had got rid of his enemies at home, and had strengthened his position by taking part in the wars and politics of France, he began to be a little more unbending, and refused to grant any more power to parliament. But his health was now seriously affected; his son Henry had to discharge for him some of the kingly duties. This seems to have made the infirm old man suspect the Prince of Wales was wishing for his death, and his last years were not happy. He died in 1413.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Henry IV., first of the House of Lancaster, is chosen king1399
2. He persecutes the Lollards.....1401
3. The Welsh rebel, and are helped by Northumberland.....1402
4. Henry's position becomes stronger, but his health fails...1408-1413

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Had Henry IV. any real right of his own to the crown? Who was nearest by birth? Was Henry grateful to parliament?
2. How did he gain the favour of the church? What bloody law was passed? Who was the first to suffer?
3. Who rebelled? What powerful noble helped the rebels? What was the result of the battle at Shrewsbury?
4. How did Henry change in his way of treating parliament? Was he powerful and happy in his last years?

CHAPTER XVI.

HENRY V. (1413-1422).

1. **Character.**—The late king's eldest son, often called Prince Hal, had spent much of his youth in merriment and dissipation; but he no sooner became king than he shewed every desire to be a just and energetic king. He dismissed his thoughtless comrades, and chose grave and experienced counsellors. He began his reign by setting his kinsmen and rival, the Earl of March, at liberty; and to the Percies he restored the estates forfeited by rebellion. In religion, Henry was austere and devout; in war, he was stern and severe towards the conquered. His reign was chiefly occupied by war.

2. **The Lollards.**—The followers of Wicliffe were still very numerous; and they were now suspected of desiring not merely to reform the church, but to overthrow the government. At all events, many who were discontented with the ruling powers took sides with the Lollards. The chief man of the Lollards was Sir John Oldcastle, also called Lord Cobham, formerly a great friend of the king. As he was an able man and a good soldier, he was feared by the government, and put in the Tower of London as a heretic (1414). When he escaped, there were rumours of a conspiracy against the king; and Oldcastle, after being hid for

a while, was taken and put to death. Thirty-nine other Lollards were hanged or burned.

3. **A Conspiracy.**—A serious plot against the king was discovered (1415) just as Henry was starting to invade France. The king's cousin, the Earl of Cambridge, was one of the conspirators put to death; Lord Scrope was another.

4. **Agincourt.**—Never since the beginning of the Hundred Years' War in Edward III's reign had there been a lasting peace, though the fighting had sometimes been interrupted by truces. In the reign of Richard II. little credit had been gained by England, and Henry IV. never had time to try his strength against France. Henry V., to the joy of his people and especially of the barons, determined to renew the war with vigour. As the descendant of Edward III. he made the old claim to the crown of France. The time was favourable; for the king of France was weak-minded, and the country was split into fierce parties. In 1415 Henry landed at Harfleur with 30,000 men, besieged and took it, and with only a half of his forces left, marched towards Calais. At Agincourt, not far from Cressy, Henry met a French army four or five times as numerous as his own. On 25th October, a great battle was fought. The French were thrown into confusion, as they had so often been, by the skill and rapidity of the English archery. There was a great slaughter; the French commander and thousands of his knights fell in the battle. Henry immediately returned home and made triumphant entry into London with his prisoners.

5. **War renewed.**—Two years later, Henry invaded Normandy again, and besieged and took Rouen. At last, by help of the powerful Duke of Burgundy, a favourable treaty was signed (1420). Henry was to marry Catherine, the French king's daughter, was to be regent of France then, and was to succeed to the crown of France when the reigning king died. The Dauphin, the French king's eldest son, who was thus disinherited, refused to acknowledge the treaty or make peace with Henry.

6. **Henry's last War.**—Ere long Henry returned to fight against the Dauphin and his followers, and gained several victories. But during the campaign he sickened and died (1422).

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Henry V. devotes himself to his kingly duties.....1413
2. He persecutes the Lollards.....1414

3. Cambridge's conspiracy discovered.....1415
4. Henry invades France and conquers at Agincourt.....1415
5. He renews the war and obtains a favourable treaty.....1420
6. In a new war against the Dauphin, he dies.....1422

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What kind of man was Henry in his youth? When he became king? What was he in war? In religion?
2. What were the Lollards suspected of? How many suffered?
3. What happened just as Henry was starting for France?
4. What claim did Henry make on France? How many soldiers were left after taking Harfleur? Where was the great battle?
5. Whose help did he get in another war? What was settled by the treaty of 1420? Who did not agree to the treaty?
6. Whom did Henry fight against last?

CHAPTER XVII.

HENRY VI. (1422-1461).

1. **A Baby King.**—The only child of Henry V. and Catherine of France was an infant not a year old when his father died. So the late king's brothers, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, became the most important persons in the realm; but England was really governed by a council of nobles. Even after Henry VI. grew up, he was too weak-minded to be able to rule well. His reign is a history of unfortunate wars in France, and still more unhappy civil war at home.

2. **French Wars again.**—The old feeble-minded king of France, Henry VI.'s grandfather, was now dead also; and Bedford went to France to demand the crown for the son of Henry V. But the greater part of France held out for the son of the French king, afterwards called Charles VII. Bedford took a large army over; he was a very able soldier, and in the first years of the war gained several victories, especially at Verneuil (1424), where many Scots fought with the French. But the tide soon turned.

3. **Joan of Arc.**—A new and strange leader appeared to inspire the French with new courage, and to lead them to victory. This was Joan of Arc, a village maiden from Lorraine. She came to the Dauphin, and said God had sent her to tell him that he should be crowned king of France at Rheims, then in

the hands of the English. Clad in white armour, the warrior maiden came with a French army to the succour of Orleans, then besieged by the English, and compelled the besiegers to retire (1429). The 'Maid of Orleans,' as she was now called, also defeated Lord Talbot, one of the best of the English commanders; and Charles VII. was actually crowned at Rheims by her help. But after three years of brave and glorious warfare against the enemies of France, she was taken prisoner by the Duke of Burgundy, given up to the English, condemned as a heretic by French bishops, and burned at Rouen as a sorceress (1431). In spite of this base revenge on their chief enemy, the English found their cause getting weaker every day, especially after Bedford died (1435); and at the end of the Hundred Years' War, England possessed no spot of French ground but Calais.

4. **Jack Cade's Rebellion.**—England was distracted by endless disputes and struggles between the Duke of Gloucester, his uncle, who was Bishop of Winchester, and the Duke of Suffolk. The queen, Margaret of Anjou, a very able woman, supported Suffolk. The people were filled with rage against their rulers by the ill success of the French war; and a rebellion added to the confusion. The common people of Kent rose under Jack Cade (1450), an old soldier, and were joined by many gentlemen. They demanded a change of ministers, better management of the revenue, and the removal of some grievances that burdened labouring men. The rebels, having defeated a royal force and taken possession of London, plundered some houses, and killed some of the most hated nobles. Their complaints were accepted by government; and when they had received a pardon, the rebels went home. Cade was taken and killed.

5. **Wars of the Roses.**—About this time began the great and bloody struggles for power between the House of Lancaster and the House of York. Henry IV. was the son of the Duke of Lancaster, son of Edward III.; the present royal family and their friends were therefore called Lancastrians. The Yorkist party desired the crown to be given to the Duke of York, a descendant of that Duke of York who was a younger son of Edward III. The wars between these two parties are called the 'Wars of the Roses,' because the emblem of the Lancaster family was a red rose, that of the York House a white one. Many of the nobles fought, not from love to either side, but for their own selfish ends.

6. **Three Great Battles.**—The quarrelling began between the

Duke of Somerset, on the Lancastrian side, and Richard, Duke of York. The king became insane, and York was made (1454) Protector of the kingdom. When the king recovered, Somerset obtained the chief power again. York took up arms, and defeated and killed Somerset at St Albans (1455). York became Protector again, and there was no important fighting for four years; but in 1460, the Yorkists defeated the royalists at Northampton, and took the king prisoner. York now openly demanded the crown of England, and parliament agreed to give him the right to succeed on the death of Henry VI. The Lancastrian party naturally disliked this arrangement, and gathered to defend the right of Henry VI's son, Edward, who had been disinherited in favour of the Duke of York. York met the Lancastrians in battle near Wakefield in Yorkshire, and was utterly defeated. He and one of his sons and many of his chief supporters were put to death after the battle (1461).

7. **Change of King.**—But York's eldest son, Edward, defended the Yorkist cause very ably. At Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire, he vanquished his opponents (1461), and by executing many noble prisoners, took bloody vengeance on the Lancastrians for what they did at Wakefield. The new Duke of York's most powerful supporter was the Earl of Warwick, who was, however, defeated by Queen Margaret in a second battle at St Albans. But he and York, joining their forces, marched into London, and were welcomed by the citizens; and at a great council, York was declared king under the title of Edward IV.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Henry VI. is an infant when he succeeds his father.....	1422
2. Bedford is victorious at Verneuil.....	1424
3. Joan of Arc drives the English away from Orleans.....	1429
4. Jack Cade leads a rebellion.....	1450
5. Houses of Lancaster and York quarrel.....	1452-1455
6. First great battle in the Wars of the Roses at St Albans.....	1455
7. Edward IV. declared king.....	1461

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How old was Henry VI. at his accession? Which of his uncles obtained great power? What kind of mind had Henry?
2. Who led in the French war? What luck had he at first? Did fortune continue to favour the English?

3. What new leader helped the French? Where did she lead a French army? What happened to her at last?
4. What enraged the English people? Who was Jack Cade? What did his followers do?
5. Why were the two great parties called Lancastrian and Yorkist? Why were the wars that followed called Wars of the Roses?
6. Who was chief of the Lancastrians? Who conquered at St Albans? At Northampton? At Wakefield?
7. Who took up the cause of the slain Duke of York? Where did he gain a victory? What was the second battle of St Albans?

CHAPTER XVIII.

EDWARD IV. (1461-1483).

1. **Civil War continued.**—Edward was king, but the Wars of the Roses were by no means ended yet. Before he had borne the crown a fortnight, he fought the bloody but victorious battle of Towton in Yorkshire. In the north the struggle was kept up for three years longer, till the battles of Hedgeley Moor and Hexham (1464) seem to have finally crushed the Lancastrian cause. After hiding a year, the ex-king, Henry VI., was taken and put in the Tower. All hope for him seemed lost.

2. **Edward's new Nobility.**—Edward was gay and very handsome, and, though subtle and cruel, was a popular king. He married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir Richard Woodville, and conferred so many favours and titles and posts of honour on her father and other relations as greatly to enrage the Earl of Warwick, by whose help he had gained the crown.

3. **The King-maker.**—The king's brother, the Duke of Clarence, joined Warwick in opposition to Lord Rivers, as the queen's father was now called, and together they raised insurrections against Edward, but were unsuccessful, and had to flee to France (1470). There Warwick met and made friends with Margaret, the queen of Henry VI., and returning to England, proclaimed Henry king again. Warwick was so strongly supported by his own friends and the Lancastrians, that Henry was actually king for a short while at the end of 1470. Edward had to flee to Burgundy. As Warwick had helped to make Edward IV. king, and had now made Henry VI. king again, he was nicknamed the *King-maker*.

4. Edward's return.—Edward soon returned from Burgundy (1471) to try his fortunes once more. Landing at Ravenspur, where Henry IV. had come ashore, he was joined by his brother Clarence again. He encountered Warwick at Barnet in Middlesex, where the king-maker was defeated and slain. Edward had still to meet the army of Margaret, Henry's brave and undaunted queen. At Tewkesbury victory again fell to Edward; and his namesake Edward, Henry's son, and the only hope of the Lancastrian cause, was killed after the battle. Henry died soon after—by foul play, it was suspected—in the Tower; and Margaret, after five years of captivity, found her way back to France.

5. Effects of the War.—The great struggle had been carried on chiefly by the great nobles and their retainers. The bulk of the people cared little about the matter, and took little part in the fighting. The frequent battles and executions had destroyed a great part of the old nobility, and overthrown the feudal system. Further, the confiscation of the lands of the defeated party threw vast domains into the king's hands. So that, as the strength of the barons was gone, the king became much more powerful than before, and ruled almost absolutely, with very little control from parliament. Thus when Edward, secure at home, resolved to invade France, he not only got money from parliament, but forced rich men to give him large sums more, under the nice sounding name of 'benevolence.'

6. Failure of the War.—The war, nevertheless, came to nothing (1475). The king of France, rather than fight, agreed to pay Edward a yearly pension. The English were disgusted at the inglorious issue of the great preparations. An ugly fact in the last years of Edward is the death of his brother, the Duke of Clarence. Edward charged him with treason; he was found guilty and put in the Tower; and in a few days was known to be dead. People said he had been drowned by order of the king in a cask of wine. The king died in 1483.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Immediately on his accession, Edward conquers at Towton....1461
Again at Hedgeley Moor and Hexham.....1464
2. He ennobles and enriches his wife's relations.....1464-1470
3. Warwick restores Henry VI.....1470
4. Edward returns and conquers at Barnet and Tewkesbury.....1471
5. He becomes an almost absolute king.....1471-1483

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What three battles further established Edward's cause?
2. Whom did Edward marry? How did he treat his wife's relations?
3. Was Warwick successful at first? What nickname did he get?
4. What battles did Edward fight on his return? What happened to Henry VI.? To his queen? To his son?
5. Who chiefly carried on the Wars of the Roses? What was the effect of the war on the nobles? On the king's power?
6. What came of the French war? What was the end of Clarence?

CHAPTER XIX.

EDWARD V. (Part of 1483).

1. **Gloucester Protector.**—Edward IV. left two sons, the Prince of Wales, thirteen years old, and the Duke of York, aged ten years. The young prince, who was now in name king, was in the country with his mother's relatives when his father died. When he came to London, his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, took him away from his mother's friends, and though professing to take him as king, had him put for safety, as he said, into the Tower, where the Duke of York soon joined his brother. Gloucester was meanwhile made Protector (1483).

2. **Gloucester made King.**—Gloucester had been helped by Lord Hastings, but he now began to suspect him. Suddenly, while Hastings was sitting at the Protector's council table, he was arrested and immediately put to death. Many of the former queen's relatives, the Woodvilles, were also executed by Gloucester without any trial. And then the duke's friends began to give out that Edward IV. ought not to have married the young princes' mother, because he was engaged to be married to some one else; and that therefore the young princes in the Tower had no right to succeed him. On this pretext, parliament gave the crown to Gloucester, now Richard III.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Edward V. is king in name, and Gloucester Protector.....1483
2. Gloucester obtains the crown.....1483

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How many sons did Edward IV. leave? How old were they? What title had Gloucester?
 2. How did the Protector get rid of those he thought his enemies? What pretext did his friends find for giving him the crown?
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CHAPTER XX.

RICHARD III. (1483-1485).

1. **His Character.**—There were many reasons why people were content to have Richard as king; the chief being that Edward's reign had latterly been very tyrannical. Richard's best chance of success was in really reigning well. He therefore made promises of many reforms, and passed a number of very good laws; amongst others, a law declaring 'benevolence' illegal, and he undertook to raise no money in that manner. Richard's character is generally represented as very bad; he is made not merely unscrupulous, as he most certainly was, but selfish, malicious, and wholly cruel. He was doubtless an able sovereign; and he certainly was at first very popular with a great part of his subjects.

2. **The Young Princes.**—A terrible blot on his name is his behaviour to his nephews. It was believed then, and still seems most likely, that fearing the nation might yet prefer their claims to his, their uncle sent murderers into the Tower, who smothered the boys in their beds while asleep (1483), and then buried them at the foot of a stair.

3. **Buckingham's Rebellion.**—There had been plots against Richard already; horror at this bloody deed provoked men to dangerous conspiracies. The Lancastrians hated Richard from the first; his conduct towards the Woodvilles had made him many bitter enemies, and now many of the most faithful Yorkists abhorred him. He had, moreover, a very dangerous rival, next heir to the crown after Richard, in any case. This was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who by his father was descended from Catherine, widow of Henry IV.—she having married a Welsh gentleman called Tudor; by his mother Richmond was sprung from John of Gaunt, the great head of the Lancastrian family. One of Richard III.'s most deadly enemies

was Buckingham, who had a short while ago done most to help him to the crown, and had shared his guilt. He headed a revolt (1483) in favour of Richmond, but was unsuccessful. His troops deserted him; he fell into the hands of Richard, who had him beheaded.

4. **Richmond's Invasion.**—But after nearly two years, Richmond himself landed at Milford Haven. He found supporters in many powerful lords who till now had not declared against Richard. The rivals met at Bosworth Field in Leicestershire, and Richard was defeated and slain, sword in hand. Lord Stanley took up the battered crown that had fallen from Richard's helmet, and put it on Richmond's head, hailing him as king. Parliament followed up this sudden crowning by accepting Richmond as king under the name of Henry VII. He was the first of the family of kings known as the Tudor dynasty.

SUMMARY.

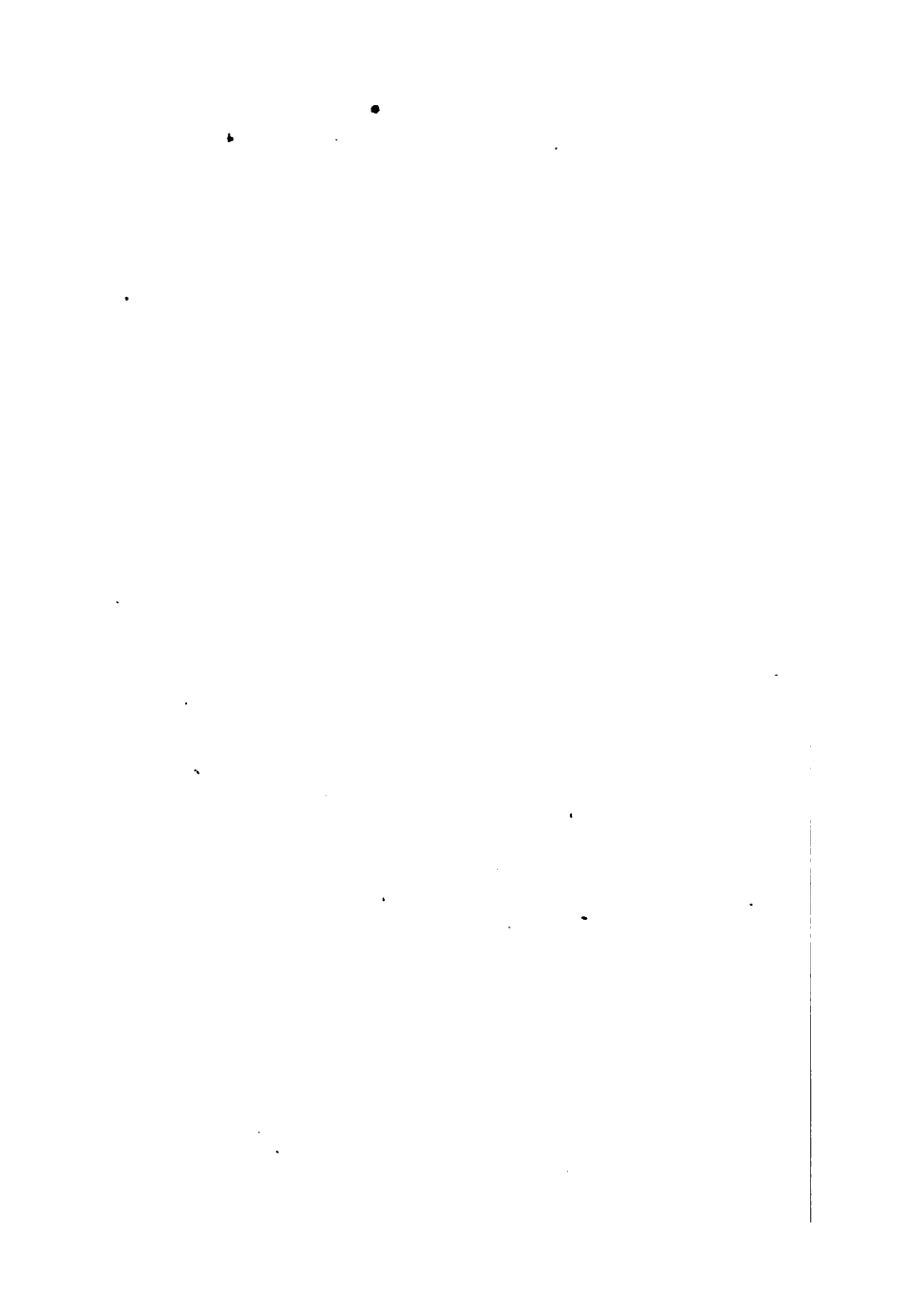
Paragraph

1. Richard III. is at first popular.....1483
2. He causes the princes, his nephews, to be murdered.....1483
3. Buckingham fails in a rebellion in favour of Richmond.....1483
4. Richmond gains the crown by his victory at Bosworth.....1485

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How did Richard begin his reign? What kind of man is he generally said to have been? Was he disliked at first?
2. What came of the young princes? Why should their uncle have caused this to be done?
3. What classes of people were enemies to Richard? Who was Richard's rival? From whom was Richmond descended?
4. Where did Richmond land in England? Where did he meet Richard's army? What was the result of the battle?

PART III.



HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

PART III.

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

CHAPTER I.

HENRY VII. (1485-1509).

1. Accession of Henry VII. (1485).—As we have seen in Part II. of this History, Richard III. lost his crown and his life at the battle of Bosworth. His successful rival was the young Earl of Richmond, now king under the title of Henry VII. Henry belonged to the line of Lancaster, and was its acknowledged head; but all parties were tired of the cruelty and violence of Richard. In the day of battle many of his followers joined the army of Henry. Few regretted his death; and most Englishmen were glad to hear that the crown had been placed upon the head of Richmond.

2. Importance of Henry's Reign.—The accession of Henry VII. was a great turning-point in the history of England; it was the ending of a great many old things and the beginning of many new, which affect us even to this day. (1) Henry was the founder of the Tudor line of kings, being descended on the father's side from Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman who had married Katharine, widow of Henry V. (2) His marriage to Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV., united the Houses of York and Lancaster that had so long been rivals; his children became the heirs of both lines. The greater part of the people were glad of this happy arrangement; and thus the bloody wars of the Roses were brought to a close. (3) But a point still more important to remember is, that the barons had lost their power in the wars of the Roses. They had almost exterminated each

other. They never grew so strong again; they could not make war upon each other, or resist the king, as they were wont to do. The result was that the king displaced them all; and he grew more absolute and despotic. (4) Thus the system of *personal government* was established, in which the king was supreme over every power in the country. (5) One good result of this was that there was less fighting and confusion than formerly; a new era of order and stability and prosperity began with Henry's reign. We see some of the same features in the reign of Edward IV.; but under Henry VII. a settled and peaceful government, based upon the overthrow of the nobles, was finally set up.

3. Yorkist Rebellions.—Still, many in England were not content with the rule of Henry, and several attempts were made to set up a king of the line of York. As the Earl of Warwick—son of the Duke of Clarence, and nearest heir of the House of York—was imprisoned in the Tower, the Yorkists brought forward a false Earl of Warwick. This was Lambert Simnel, son of a joiner at Oxford. This impostor received support from many; for he was crowned in Ireland, and even invaded England, but was defeated at Stoke-on-Trent (1487), taken prisoner, and contemptuously made a scullion in the royal kitchen. A more formidable impostor was Perkin Warbeck, a native of Flanders, who pretended to be the Duke of York, one of the princes murdered in the Tower. Warbeck was countenanced by foreign rulers, such as James IV. of Scotland, who gave him in marriage Katharine Gordon, a kinswoman of his own. But, when he ventured to invade England, he lost heart and surrendered to Henry. He was beheaded (1499) along with the true Earl of Warwick, who had been confined in the Tower for fourteen years. These risings gave Henry great trouble, but they never shook his throne.

4. Royal Marriages.—Two royal marriages during this reign had great influence on the history of the country. The first was the marriage of Arthur, eldest son of Henry VII., to Katharine of Aragon. But the young prince died soon after; and then it was arranged that Katharine should remain in England, and in due time become the wife of Arthur's brother Henry. We shall hear of this again. About the same time Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., was wedded to James IV. of Scotland. This match led to the union of the crowns of England and Scotland.

5. The Rule of Henry VII.—Henry took great care that the

nobles should not again become too strong for the crown. He abolished 'maintenance,' a practice the nobles had of keeping about them a great many retainers, who were ready to fight for them in battle. Once, when on a visit to the Earl of Oxford, a friend of the House of Lancaster, the king found a great number of splendidly equipped men drawn up to receive him. 'I thank you for your good cheer, my lord,' said Henry, as they parted; 'but I may not endure to have the laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you.' The earl was fined £10,000. Henry was too fond of money. He received subsidies for a war against France; but immediately made a peace, by which he obtained a large sum from the French king; while, at home, with the help of two lawyers, Empson and Dudley, he managed to squeeze a great deal of money from the people. In this way, he left his successor a hoard of two millions. Henry died of consumption (1509) in his palace of Richmond, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, in the beautiful chapel which bears his name.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Richard III. is defeated and slain at the battle of Bosworth....1485
The Duke of Richmond becomes king, under the title of Henry VII.
2. Henry VII. marries Elizabeth of York, founds the Tudor line of kings, and brings the Wars of the Roses to an end.
3. The impostor, Lambert Simnel, is defeated at Stoke-on-Trent...1487
Perkin Warbeck also raises an insurrection, and is beheaded...1499
4. Prince Arthur, after marrying Katharine of Aragon, dies1502
Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., is married to James IV. of Scotland.....1503
5. Henry dies of consumption1509

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Where was Richard III. slain? Who was his successful rival?
2. Why was the Tudor line of kings so named? Who became the queen of Henry VII.? What great wars did this marriage put an end to? What effect on the barons had these wars?
3. Name the two impostors that disturbed the reign of Henry VII.
4. What important marriages took place in this reign?
5. What practice of the nobles did Henry abolish? Describe his conduct to the Earl of Oxford. Explain some of Henry's methods of raising money.

CHAPTER II.

HENRY VIII. (1509-1547).

1. **Young Henry.**—A king of a very different character now ascended the throne. He was only eighteen years of age, gay, handsome, and fond of popularity; he was learned for his years, a good musician, accomplished in all the manly exercises of the time, and of a generous disposition. Great hopes were entertained of him by the best men of the time, and he was a great favourite with all classes. One of his first acts was to marry Katharine of Aragon, the wife of his deceased brother. Empson and Dudley, the instruments of his father's extortions, were put to death on a charge of high treason, which, however, was totally unfounded.

2. **War with France and Scotland (1513).**—Henry was excessively fond of show, and ardently desirous to distinguish himself in foreign conquest. He sought to keep alive the old military spirit of the English by tournaments and other warlike exercises, in which he himself was ever first, and the admired of all. Above all, he burned to revive the glorious days of former English kings, and to conquer France. Accordingly he invaded France in 1513, when he gained the 'Battle of the Spurs' (near Tournay), so called from the headlong flight of the French cavalry. The same year, James IV. of Scotland, the ally of the French, invaded England with a mighty host; but at Flodden he perished with the flower of the Scottish nation. At length Henry discovered that his continental allies were false to him, and then he concluded peace and an alliance with France.

3. **Charles V. and Francis I.**—The great contemporaries of Henry were Francis I., king of France, and Charles V. The latter was nephew of Katharine of Aragon; he was king of Spain and emperor of Germany, and was the most powerful monarch of the time. These three professed to be great friends, but they were always jealous rivals, and often open enemies. All three had been candidates for the imperial crown when Charles was elected; and Francis had been grievously disappointed at his failure. Henry and Francis had a friendly meeting near Calais (1520), at which the display was so magnificent that it was called the 'Field of the Cloth of Gold;' but the

expense was ruinous to many of the nobility of both countries, and it did no good, as they were soon at war again. This war led to no remarkable result.

4. **Wolsey.**—All these years the great adviser and minister of the king was Thomas Wolsey, the son of a poor but respectable citizen of Ipswich. He was a man of very great ability and of a boundless ambition. Beginning as a parish priest, he had rapidly risen to the highest offices, being made Archbishop of York, Chancellor to the king, Cardinal and the Pope's Legate in England; he even aspired to be Pope himself. Next to Henry himself he was the most powerful man in the kingdom; he managed all the king's affairs; he discussed theology with him in serious moments; he encouraged him in every amusement. This relationship lasted for about eighteen years.

5. **The Divorce of Katharine of Aragon.**—As we have seen, Henry had married Katharine of Aragon, the wife of his deceased brother. Such a marriage was against the laws of the Church; and a dispensation, or special permission from the Pope, was needed to make it legal. Katharine was six years older than Henry. They had lived eighteen years as husband and wife, when Henry declared that his conscience was troubled about the lawfulness of the marriage. Katharine had borne him several children, but all had died except Mary; and this, he said, had increased his uneasiness, as he looked upon their death as a token of the displeasure of heaven against a sinful marriage. It was indeed of great consequence to England that there should be a fitting successor; for men could still remember the terrible bloodshed caused by the Wars of the Roses in a dispute about the crown. It was thought, however, that Henry's scruples about his marriage were due very much to his having fallen in love with another person—with the beautiful Anne Boleyn, one of the maids of honour to the queen. In 1527, Henry applied to Pope Clement for a divorce; but the Pope, being afraid of Charles V., who took up the cause of his aunt Katharine, always found excuses to delay the decision. At length, in 1529, the case was heard before the Cardinal Campeggio (who had been sent to England by the Pope) and Cardinal Wolsey; but even then no decision was given.

6. **Fall of Wolsey (1529).**—The patience of Henry was now exhausted; he could bear no opposition to his will; and when his anger was roused, no person that stood in his way was safe.

Wolsey was the first victim. He had not pressed the divorce with any heartiness; he was unpopular with the nobles because of his pride; and he now felt the full weight of the royal displeasure. He was obliged to give up all his wealth; he was deprived of his high offices; and finally arrested for high treason. He died at Leicester Abbey on his way to London, saying on his deathbed: 'Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs' (1530).

7. Quarrel with the Pope.—Following the advice of his new minister, Thomas Cromwell, Henry now resolved to be independent of the Pope and of the Church of Rome. He married Anne Boleyn; Archbishop Cranmer declaring the marriage with Katharine null and void. The papal power in England was abolished; and the king was declared *Supreme Head* of the English Church. The great Sir Thomas More, who had been made Chancellor after Wolsey, and Fisher, Bishop of Winchester, were executed because they would not acknowledge the royal supremacy over the Church (1535). Thus the question of divorce led to the quarrel with the Pope and the separation of England from Rome.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Henry VIII. ascends the throne.....	1509
2. He fights in France, and wins the Battle of Spurs.....	1513
James IV. is defeated and slain at Flodden.....	1513
3. Henry meets Francis at the Field of the Cloth of Gold.....	1520
Henry is again at war with France	1521
4. In the first period of Henry's reign Wolsey is chief minister.	
5. Henry applies to the Pope for a divorce.....	1527
6. Wolsey falls	1529
7. England is separated from Rome.....	1533
Henry is declared supreme head of the English Church.....	1534
Fisher and Sir Thomas More are executed.....	1535

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How old was Henry VIII. at his accession? His character? Who became his wife?
2. How did Henry spend the early years of his reign?
3. Who were Henry's great contemporaries?
4. Who was Wolsey? Name some of the honours which he obtained.

5. What now troubled the king's mind? With whom had the king fallen in love? To whom did Henry apply for a divorce?
 6. The end of Wolsey?
 7. How was the question of divorce settled? What great change took place with regard to the Pope?
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CHAPTER III.

HENRY VIII.—Continued. Beginning of the Reformation.

1. **The New Learning.**—Henry's quarrel with the Pope was connected with many other very important changes. All over Christian Europe, men were beginning to be discontented with the state of the Church. The invention of printing had made books far commoner than they used to be; the discovery of America and other remarkable events had enlarged the minds of men. Scholars began to study Greek, the language in which the New Testament and many noble works of ancient times were written. They went from country to country, carrying with them this 'New Learning,' as it is called. They complained of the miserable state of the schools and universities, of the idleness and ignorance of the monks, and of the fruitless wars. Among the most notable of those masters of the 'New Learning' were Erasmus and Thomas More.

2. **The Protestant Reformation.**—Far more important still was the Protestant Reformation. This great movement began with Martin Luther, who in 1517 first preached against Indulgences—that is, written pardons of sin, which were sold to the people. Afterwards he went on to defy the Pope; and he called on all men to separate from Rome. King Henry opposed Luther, and wrote a book against him, for which he received from the Pope the title of 'Defender of the Faith' (1521). The kings of England retain the title to this day. Even after he quarrelled with the Pope on the question of divorce, he continued to oppose the doctrines of Luther and to persecute his followers. Still the Protestants, as they were called, grew and multiplied in England. Many powerful men, such as Archbishop Cranmer, encouraged them as far as they could. The Protestants differed from the Catholics in many points, such as the following: They thought it wrong to worship relics and images; they objected

to monks and to private confession, and believed that the clergy should be married; they wished to have the Bible translated into the common tongue, and read by everybody, and that the Church service should not be in Latin, but in the language of the people.

3. **Cromwell and the Monasteries.**—Besides quarrelling with the Pope, there was another point in which Henry was ready to deal very severely with the Catholic Church. This was the dissolution of the monasteries, which had immense wealth, especially in land, and were said to be very corrupt. In this step he had the willing support of the nobles and men in power, who hoped to share in the spoil, and he found an able servant in Thomas Cromwell, whom he appointed his Vicar-general in ecclesiastical matters. The smaller monasteries were first broken up (1536). A rebellion of the people of the north, called the 'Pilgrimage of Grace,' was soon put down, and did not deter Henry from proceeding to dissolve the larger monasteries. Part of their wealth was applied to good purposes, such as the founding of new bishoprics, and the raising of fortifications for the defence of the country; but most of it passed into the hands of the greedy courtiers. Cromwell did his work so vigorously that he was called the 'Hammer of the Monks.'

4. **The Bloody Statute (1539).**—Henry had quarrelled with the Pope, and he was ready to break up the monasteries, but he was not the less opposed to the Protestant doctrines. On the same day, Catholics were executed for denying the royal supremacy over the Church, and Protestants were burned because they held the doctrines of Luther. In 1539 was passed the 'Bloody Statute' of six articles, by which most of the old doctrines were made binding. Through it many Protestants were sent to the stake. The most notable of these martyrs was Anne Askew, daughter of Sir William Askew, a lady of great beauty and high character, who was burned at Smithfield.

5. **The King's Wives.**—The same year that the divorced Queen Katharine died, her rival Anne Boleyn fell under the displeasure of the king and was executed. She left a daughter, Elizabeth. Henry's third wife was Jane Seymour, who bore him a son, Edward, and died soon after. Early in 1540 Henry married Anne of Cleves, a Protestant lady. The marriage had been arranged by Cromwell, who wished to strengthen the power of the king by an alliance with the Protestant princes of Germany. But Henry found that Anne was

no beauty; and he soon had her divorced and pensioned off, while Cromwell lost the royal favour, and was beheaded (1540). The king's fifth wife, Katharine Howard, was found to have misconducted herself, and was beheaded. Last of all, Henry married Katharine Parr, a lady of rare prudence, who was in danger more than once, but outlived him. Thus of Henry's six wives, two were beheaded and two were divorced.

6. *Foreign Affairs.*—Abroad Henry made many enemies, and was often in trouble. He was excommunicated by the Pope, and was for some time at enmity with the Emperor Charles because of the divorce. During the last years of his life he was at war again with both France and Scotland. After the defeat of his troops at Solway Moss (1542), James V. of Scotland had died broken-hearted, leaving the crown to his infant daughter Mary. It was now the policy of Henry to unite the two kingdoms by a marriage between his son Edward and Mary. The Scots were not opposed to the match, but they did not like Henry's method of wooing. The ravage of their country only roused them to a more stubborn resistance, and led to the defeat of the English at Ancrum Moor (1544).

7. *Death of Henry.*—Before his death, Henry became so unwieldy that he needed, it is said, to be moved from one room to another by means of machinery. He suffered great pain, and died in January 1547. Just before his death, the Earl of Surrey, son of the Duke of Norfolk, and a famous poet, was beheaded. Henry's reign had a fair and promising beginning, but the after-course was stained with the blood of his nobles and of his most faithful servants. He left three children, each of whom in turn became sovereign of England: Edward, son of Jane Seymour; Mary, daughter of Katharine; Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. The 'New Learning' makes great changes in Europe.
2. Henry disliked the Reformation, though he quarrelled with the Pope. Cranmer favours the Protestants.
3. Henry employs Cromwell to dissolve the monasteries.....1536-39
4. The Bloody Statute is passed.....1539
5. Henry had six wives, two of whom were divorced and two executed. Cromwell is executed.....1540
6. Henry is at war again with France and Scotland.....1542
7. Henry VIII. dies, leaving three children.....1547

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What was the 'New Learning'? Who were its great masters?
 2. Who had begun the Protestant Reformation? How did Henry win his title of 'Defender of the Faith'? Name some points on which Catholics and Protestants differed.
 3. What great establishments did Henry now proceed to break up? What was the 'Pilgrimage of Grace'?
 4. What was the Bloody Statute?
 5. Name Henry's six wives? What was the fate of Cromwell?
 6. With what countries was Henry again at war?
 7. When did Henry die? Name his three children.
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CHAPTER IV.

EDWARD VI. (1547-1553).

1. **The Protector.**—Edward, son of Henry VIII. by Jane Seymour, now ascended the throne. He was only in his tenth year; and Henry had appointed a council of sixteen 'executors' to govern the kingdom during the minority. In this council the Earl of Hertford, uncle of the young king, took the first place. He was made Duke of Somerset, and received the title of Protector. He attempted to carry out the policy of Henry, by forcing the marriage treaty upon Scotland. He defeated the Scotch at the battle of Pinkie (1547); but this did not make them more willing to accept the treaty. They sent their young Mary to France, where she was brought up, and in due time married to the king's son.

2. **The Reformation.**—The Protector was decidedly in favour of the Reformation. The young king, who was pious and learned beyond his years, was brought up under the influence of Protestant teaching, and was surrounded with Protestant counsellors. In these circumstances, the Reformation made rapid progress in England. The Bloody Statute and other laws against the Protestants were repealed. The mass was abolished; the Latin service made way for the English Book of Common Prayer drawn up by Cranmer, and the doctrines of the English Church were summed up in Forty-two Articles of Religion. The reading of the English Bible was encouraged; the marriage

of the clergy was allowed. The Reformers sought to remove the images, paintings, and everything in the churches that reminded men of the old religion. With part of the remaining Church wealth, Edward endowed some grammar-schools; but far more of it went into the hands of the nobles and men of power, who favoured the Reformation for the sake of the spoil.

3. *Difficulties of the Protector.*—The Protector Somerset did not retain his power very long. He was first disturbed by the ambitious schemes of his brother, Lord Seymour, High Admiral of England, who had married Katharine Parr, widow of Henry VIII. On the death of Katharine, Lord Seymour wished to marry the Princess Elizabeth, and evidently meant to supplant his brother. He was condemned without a hearing, and executed. At that time there was great discontent in England. Some were grieved at the loss of the mass and the dissolution of the monasteries. As much of the land was thrown into pasture, and as the common lands were occupied by the rich, many could find no employment, and were brought to starvation. Risings took place in several counties, especially in Norfolkshire, where one Ket, a tanner, was made leader of the poor, and sat under an oak, called the '*Oak of Reformation*,' dealing out justice to the people. This rising was put down by the Earl of Warwick.

4. *Fall of the Protector.*—Warwick was a powerful nobleman, opposed to the Protector, whose influence now began to decline. Somerset was said to have encouraged the risings of the poor; he had lately been unsuccessful in Scotland, and he had exposed Boulogne to be retaken by the French. He was deprived of his high office; and some time after he was beheaded, to the great sorrow of the common people, of whom he was a friend (1552).

5. *Schemes of the Duke of Northumberland.*—Warwick, now become Duke of Northumberland, was a selfish and unscrupulous man, who supported the Reformation from policy. He saw that the king was in ill health, and that he could not live very long; so he busied himself with a great scheme for appointing a successor. He persuaded the young king to set aside Mary, Elizabeth, and all the rightful heirs to the throne, and to appoint as successor Lady Jane Grey, grand-niece of Henry VIII. He also had Lady Jane married to his own son, Lord Guildford Dudley, and so the ambitious scheme was complete. He adopted every means for making it a success, and had the arrangement solemnly ratified by the dying king. The death of Edward took place in 1553.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. King Edward ascends the throne.....1547
The Earl of Hertford, uncle of the king, is made Protector,
and defeats the Scots at Pinkie.....1547
2. Protestantism is established in England.
3. Risings of the common people are suppressed by Warwick.
4. Somerset is executed.....1552
5. The Earl of Warwick schemes for the elevation of Lady Jane
Grey to the throne.
King Edward dies.....1553

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How old was Edward when he became king? What council had been appointed to govern during the minority? Who became head of this council? The battle of Pinkie?
2. Name some of the steps by which the Reformation was established in England.
3. Who was Lord Seymour? His fate? What caused so much discontent in England? The Oak of Reformation?
4. What was the end of the Protector?
5. Who now became the chief man in England? What great scheme did he contrive with regard to the succession?

CHAPTER V.

QUEEN MARY (1553-1558).

1. *Accession of Mary.*—According to the scheme of Northumberland, Lady Jane Grey was proclaimed queen in London. Lady Jane was a beautiful and accomplished young lady of sixteen, of the purest and noblest character; but the people were not prepared to see the succession so violently altered at the bidding of a man like Northumberland, and heard the proclamation in ominous silence. The Duke failed also in getting possession of Mary, the lawful successor, who escaped to Norfolk, and began to call the nobles around her. When Northumberland marched against her, he saw himself deserted by the whole nation, and even by his own troops, and then he declared for Mary too. Mary now entered London without opposition, and was proclaimed queen amid general rejoicing. After a reign of nine

days, Lady Jane Grey was sent to the Tower, while the ambitious and unscrupulous Northumberland was beheaded.

2. Religion.—Mary was thirty-seven when she ascended the throne. She was a sincere Catholic, who meant to do her best for England and the cause of religion. The great purpose of her reign was to restore the old Faith; and from the first she began to take decided measures in this direction. The prayer-book was abolished; the mass was restored; the marriage of the clergy discouraged. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, who had been influential during the later years of Henry, became Mary's chief minister.

3. The Spanish Marriage (1554).—Great alarm and discontent arose in the country when it became known that Mary had resolved to marry Philip, heir to the crown of Spain. Knowing the power of Spain, and the despotic and persecuting temper of the young prince, men were alarmed for the liberties of England. Insurrections took place, especially one in Kent under Sir Thomas Wyatt, who marched with a great host on London, where, however, he was taken prisoner and executed. This rising gave a good excuse for executing the innocent Lady Jane Grey; and even the Princess Elizabeth was for some time in danger. After this there was no more opposition to the Spanish marriage. Philip came to England to be the husband of a wife eleven years older than himself, but means were taken to prevent his having too great power in the government.

4. Restoration of Catholicism (1554).—Mary now took a bolder step. On St Andrew's day (30th Nov. 1554) a great ceremony took place at Whitehall. The assembled Lords and Commons received kneeling, from Cardinal Pole, the Legate of the Pope, solemn absolution from the sin of heresy. Thus England was restored to the communion of the Catholic Church. The nobles had been assured that they would not be obliged to restore the Church lands.

5. Persecutions.—Mary next proceeded to put in force the old statutes against heresy. The clergymen who had advanced the cause of Reformation in the late reigns were the most notable victims. Among these were Rogers, a canon of St Paul's; Ferrars, Bishop of St David's; and Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester. Bishops Latimer and Ridley were burned together at Oxford in 1555. 'Play the man, Master Ridley,' said Latimer; 'we shall this day light such a candle in England as by the grace of God shall never be put out.' Next year Archbishop Cranmer

suffered the same fate. He had all along been the chief promoter of the Reformation, and was therefore the great mark of the enmity of the papal party. He was induced to undergo the humiliation of repeatedly recanting, and then sent to the stake, where he died a penitent and courageous death. Altogether nearly three hundred persons died at the stake during this reign, while thousands were imprisoned, fined, or driven into exile.

6. **Loss of Calais (1558).**—Mary's last days were very unhappy. She had never been beautiful, and was now grown sickly, haggard, and dejected. The want of children was a grievous affliction to her; and her doting fondness for her young husband met with no return from him. He looked upon their marriage as one of political convenience. After a time he left England to enter upon the government of his own dominions, and returned only once to urge her to join in a war against France. In this war English pride was terribly hurt by the loss of Calais. It had cost Edward III. a siege of eleven months to take it, and was above two hundred years in the possession of England; it was lost after a siege of eight days (Jan. 1558). 'When I die,' said Mary, 'Calais will be found written on my heart.' She died in 1558, neglected by her husband, and unpopular among her subjects.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Lady Jane Grey is proclaimed queen.....1553
After a reign of nine days, she is supplanted by Mary.
2. Mary begins to restore the old faith.
3. Mary marries Philip of Spain.....1554
4. England is received back into the Catholic Church.....1554
5. Persecutions: Bishops Latimer and Ridley are burned.....1555
Cranmer is also burned.....1556
6. Calais is lost by the English; Mary dies.....1558

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who now became queen for a few days? How did Northumberland's scheme fail? What was his end?
2. What changes in religion did Mary make?
3. What marriage did Mary propose to make? What great rising did this lead to? The fate of Lady Jane Grey?
4. What great event now took place at Whitehall?
5. What eminent men were burned at the stake?
6. Was Mary happy in her marriage? What great loss did England suffer during this reign?

CHAPTER VI.

QUEEN ELIZABETH (1558-1603).

1. **Elizabeth; her first steps.**—Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, now succeeded to her half-sister Mary. The people gave an enthusiastic welcome to the new queen, who was a beautiful and accomplished lady of twenty-five. Her difficulties during the late reigns had taught her prudence. During that period Sir William Cecil had been her private adviser; she now appointed him secretary. He was of great use to her, as he knew very well the wishes and the condition of the English, and was in every way fitted to be a wise and faithful counsellor. Elizabeth needed all the good advice she could get, for the Catholics were averse to her, and the Pope declared she had no just claim to the crown. The result was that she was obliged to trust entirely to her own people. Though she was a woman of a strong and haughty temper, and continued the *personal* government of the Tudors, she was a truly English queen, and ruled for the English people. Yet she was determined to risk nothing, and had fair words even for those who were most likely to be her enemies. Philip of Spain so little understood her real character that he requested her hand in marriage, and she, anxious not to offend, did not refuse it at first.

2. **Church of England established by law (1559).**—Elizabeth disliked the Pope as much as her father did, but she was not a very decided Protestant. She wished to retain the use of the crucifix, and did not like to see her clergy married. Yet the jurisdiction of the Pope was completely swept away by her first parliament, and the Church of England was established almost in its present form. All the laws in favour of Catholicism passed during the reign of Mary were repealed. The Royal Supremacy over the Church was restored. The Book of Common Prayer drawn up in King Edward's time was, with some alterations, also restored. The Forty-two Articles of Religion were reduced to Thirty-nine. The Act of Uniformity enjoined that the Prayer-book should alone be used in the church service, and that every one absenting himself from church should be fined a shilling.

3. **Catholics and Puritans.**—In the course of time the mass of the people of England became decidedly Protestant. But at first very many were undecided, and there were always some who were opposed to the Reformation altogether, who believed in the mass and obeyed the Pope. They were heavily fined, and many severe laws were passed against them. Thus there was always a Catholic party. On the other hand, there were many who thought the Reformation had not gone far enough. They wished a *purser* church and a *purser* form of worship, and so got the name of *Puritans*. We do not hear so very much of the Puritans for some time; but afterwards, as we shall see, they grew very powerful, and did a very great work in the history of England.

4. **Mary, Queen of Scots.**—The first difficulties of Elizabeth's reign arose from Mary, Queen of Scots. Mary was the grand-niece of Henry VIII. If Elizabeth was illegitimate, as the Catholics maintained, Mary was the rightful queen of England. She was already married to the king of France. But her husband died; and she returned to Scotland to find that almost the whole country was turned Protestant. Yet she did well for some time, till her unfortunate marriages with the silly Darnley and the wicked Bothwell, and other unhappy events, led to her downfall. Then being defeated and dethroned by her own subjects, she took refuge in England (1568), where she was detained for nineteen years. But Elizabeth soon found that Mary was more dangerous as a prisoner in England than ever she had been on the throne of Scotland. The Catholics were still very strong in England, especially in the north. They looked upon Mary as their rightful queen, and laid plot after plot to deliver her from prison and set her on the English throne. In 1569, the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland raised a great rebellion in the northern counties, which was put down with extreme severity. In 1572 the Duke of Norfolk, the head of the Catholic party, was beheaded for a conspiracy to marry Mary, and make her queen of England. Priests from the Catholic seminaries, and Jesuits, came over from the continent; they traversed the country in disguise, plotting and stirring up rebellion against Elizabeth, who, moreover, was excommunicated by the Pope.

5. **The Catholic Powers.**—In such a state of things we can easily understand how the position of Elizabeth must have been extremely uncomfortable and dangerous. But to know it

thoroughly, we must glance for a moment at the state of Europe. Everywhere the armed struggle between Protestantism and Catholicism was going on, or it was preparing. France and Spain had made a league for the suppression of Protestantism ; and the cruelties exercised by the Spaniards in crushing it in the Netherlands, as well as the fearful massacre of St Bartholomew, shewed what the persecutors were capable of doing. Philip II of Spain, formerly husband of Queen Mary of England, was at the head of this movement. He was the most powerful monarch of his time, ruling over many countries of Europe and over almost all America, from which he drew great stores of gold for his wars. This king had made it the task of his life to destroy Protestantism.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Queen Elizabeth ascends the throne.....1558
2. The Church of England is established by law.....1559
3. Many of the people, objecting to these changes, continue Catholics : and many, desiring greater changes still, are called Puritans.
4. Mary, Queen of Scots, flees to England.....1568
5. France and Spain join for the suppression of Protestantism.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How old was Elizabeth at her accession ? The conduct of the Pope to Elizabeth ? What offer did Philip of Spain now make her ?
2. Was Elizabeth a decided Protestant ? By what measures was the Church of England established ?
3. Who were dissatisfied with the new arrangements ? Who were the Puritans ?
4. Who was Mary, Queen of Scots ? How was she forced to flee to England ? What happened there ?
5. What were the plans of the great Catholic powers ?

CHAPTER VII.

ELIZABETH—Continued. Struggle with Spain.

1. **Approaching Struggle with Spain.** — Elizabeth disliked war ; yet she gave aid to the Huguenots or revolted Protestants of France, and encouraged the Netherlands in their rising

against Philip. In the course of time she gave the latter more active help by sending them an army under her handsome favourite Leicester. Leicester was neither a wise man nor a good soldier, and he did little good in this expedition. The most notable event in it was the battle of Zutphen (1586), where the celebrated Sir Philip Sidney fell. Sidney was the noblest man of his time, the perfect model of knightly virtue and accomplishments, and the pride of the English nation. It is said of him that, on being carried from the field mortally wounded, he requested some water to quench his thirst. He was about to raise the cup to his lips, when he saw a wounded soldier, who was borne past, look wistfully at it, and he gave him the water untasted, saying: 'Thy necessity is greater than mine.' Meanwhile Englishmen greatly annoyed Spain in the New World. Here the Spaniards claimed everything, and the English sea-kings thought they had a right to spoil them whenever they could. Among those voyagers and plunderers Martin Frobisher and Sir John Hawkins were highly distinguished. The great Sir Walter Raleigh was the first to plant a colony of Englishmen in Virginia, which failed. But the greatest of all was Drake, who sailed round the world, and made sad havoc among the Spanish settlements in America.

2. Death of Queen Mary (1587).—These attacks on Spain only made the position of Elizabeth more difficult. One source of danger was still Mary, Queen of Scots, round whom many Catholic conspiracies and enterprises continued to gather. At length in 1586 a great plot for the assassination of Elizabeth and the rescue of Mary was devised by Anthony Babington and others. It was discovered; Queen Mary was accused of having a share in it; she was condemned, tried, and executed at Fotheringay Castle (Feb. 1587).

3. The Invincible Armada.—Philip of Spain had made himself the champion of Catholicism. He now resolved to exact vengeance of a heretic queen, who had refused his hand in marriage, given help to his rebel subjects, and permitted her seamen to plunder his colonies and ships like so many pirates. So he began to fit out a fleet and army, which would lay England at his feet, and stamp out Protestantism in Europe. The fleet, proudly styled the Invincible Armada, was manned by 8000 sailors, and carried 20,000 soldiers. It was to sail for Flanders, where the Duke of Parma, the best general of the time, lay ready with 30,000 more. The united armament was then

to invade England. Great efforts were made in England to meet the enemy, London giving twice the number of ships and men required. A large army was called out; and a fleet was raised, consisting of ships which were far smaller, but better fitted for a stormy sea than those of their opponents. They were manned by 9000 of the best seamen in the world; they could sail two feet for the Spaniards' one, and the guns were served four times as fast. Before the Armada was ready, Drake boldly entered the harbour of Cadiz, and destroyed the ships lying there. Thus he 'singed the Spanish king's beard.'

4. *Destruction of the Armada.*—On the 20th July 1588, the Armada was seen off Plymouth, sailing up in a half-moon which extended seven miles from end to end, and numbering 150 ships. An English fleet, under the commander, Lord Howard of Effingham, who was supported by the sea-kings Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, sailed out to oppose them. With their light ships they had no thought of fighting at close quarters against the floating castles of Spain; but hung upon their rear, taking every opportunity to damage the enemy, and swiftly eluding him when he sought to come near. Fighting all the way, but sustaining little damage, the Spanish fleet sailed up the Channel to Calais. Here it was watched by the English fleet, now numbering 140 vessels. At Calais the Spanish fleet was not far from the Duke of Parma: something decisive required to be done to prevent the junction. The English leaders fitted out eight small vessels as fire-ships, and sent them at night to drift upon the enemy's fleet. Panic-stricken at the sight, the Spaniards rushed out of the harbour, and were scattered along the coast, where they were attacked and fearfully shattered by the English. The battle only ended with the failing of the English ammunition; and then the Spanish fleet set sail northward, thoroughly beaten, followed by the English as far as the Firth of Forth. But the elements completed the work which had been left undone. As the Armada sailed round the coast of Scotland and Ireland, it was dreadfully shattered by storms; many ships were sunk or driven on the coast; thousands of men perished or were massacred by the Irish. Of the mighty fleet of 150 ships, only 54 crawled home in a miserable plight.

5. *Earl of Essex.*—Elizabeth was served by ministers who were able, faithful, and patriotic; such as Cecil, who became Lord Burghley, and was succeeded by his son Robert Cecil. Besides these grave statesmen, she used to have about her a

brilliant following of courtiers, some of whom were distinguished by her special favour. For many years Leicester was favourite. After his death, he was succeeded by the Earl of Essex, a very young man, not without ability, and of undoubted courage. In the many expeditions against Spain which followed the Armada, Essex had a brilliant share, especially in the taking of Cadiz (1596). Essex was not so successful in Ireland. He was sent over to reduce O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, who had rebelled and defeated the English troops. Without accomplishing the task for which he had been sent, he returned home, and hastily intruded into the presence of the queen. At last, after being humiliated in various ways, he madly attempted to excite a rising among the Londoners. He was found guilty of high treason, and executed at the age of thirty-one (1601). His death was a great grief to Elizabeth. The Irish revolt was completely crushed by Lord Mountjoy.

6. *The Monopolies.*—The last parliament of Elizabeth, which met in 1601, shewed a new spirit. The queen was in the habit of granting monopolies to her favourites; that is, the exclusive right of trading in some particular article, which was sold at a very high price. Wine, salt, coals, and many other articles were thus sold by monopoly. When the list was read out in the House of Commons, a member asked if bread was not among the number, declaring that it would be so before the next parliament. Elizabeth saw that she must yield, and she yielded gracefully.

7. *End of Queen Elizabeth.*—The last days of Elizabeth were not happy. She never recovered from the loss of Essex; she was always in low spirits, and died a cheerless death in 1603. Elizabeth was not a model woman or queen; she was excessively vain and fickle and self-willed. But she had great courage, and many of the highest qualities of statesmanship; she was a lover of peace, and her name will always be associated with the progress of England. She found the country weak and distracted by the troublous changes of the previous reigns. Assisted by able and sagacious ministers of her own choice, and pursuing a resolute but wary and calculating policy, she brought the country safe and victorious through perpetual dangers both at home and abroad. At her death, England was united and comparatively prosperous, proud of its victories over Spain, and of its well-won freedom, assured of its strength, and ready for still greater achievements.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Elizabeth gives help to the Protestants on the Continent.
Sir Philip Sidney is slain at the battle of Zutphen.....1586
2. Anthony Babington and others conspire in favour of Mary.....1586
Queen Mary is executed at Fotheringhay.....1587
3. Philip of Spain prepares the Invincible Armada.....1588
4. The Armada is destroyed.
5. The Earl of Essex raises an insurrection in London.....1601
6. The English parliament protests against the monopolies.....1601
7. Queen Elizabeth dies.....1603

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. To whom did Elizabeth now give aid? What occurred at the battle of Zutphen? Name some of the English sea-kings, and tell what they did.
2. The result of Babington's conspiracy?
3. What great task had Philip undertaken? What great fleet did he equip? What preparations were made in England?
4. Describe the fighting in the Channel. Fate of the Armada, and its condition on reaching home?
5. Who were the ablest and truest of Elizabeth's ministers? Who were her chief favourites? Conduct of Essex?
6. What were the monopolies? How did the queen act?
7. When did Elizabeth die? Were her last days happy? What were her great faults? What did she do for England?

CHAPTER VIII

SOCIAL CONDITION OF ENGLAND DURING THE TUDOR PERIOD.

1. In reading the history of England, we hear far too much of battles and sieges, and of kings and men in power. The common people, the millions that formed the mass of the nation, are overlooked and forgotten, as if their happiness were a matter of no consequence. This is a great misfortune. Battles such as Hastings or Bannockburn, that decided the fate of a nation for centuries, are exceedingly important; but even they are truly interesting only in so far as they benefited or injured the people concerned in them. While victorious over all its enemies abroad, a nation may be miserable at home. The king may have a

splendid court; he may have triumphant, well-equipped armies; yet the people may be badly fed, ill-clad, wretchedly governed, ignorant, and neglected in every way. It is on the condition of the mass of the people that the prosperity of a country depends. In order to know something of the true history of a nation, we must understand its social condition.

2. England in the Sixteenth Century.—England under the Tudors was a very different country from the England we know. Could we see it as it was then, it would look like a foreign and scarcely civilised country, and we should think it decidedly uncomfortable in many ways. To have a picture of old England before our mind's eye, we must imagine a country without railways, canals, or even tolerable roads. We must think of our well-tilled and beautiful fields for the most part as wild uncultivated country—as moor and fen and forest. Most of our immense cities were mere villages; even in London the streets were not well paved and beautifully illuminated as they are now; there was not even a lantern to enable a passenger to pick his way through the deep mud. It was unsafe to be out at night.

3. Houses.—But in the sixteenth century, especially under Elizabeth, wonderful progress was made. The castles of the nobles, which had been built for defence during the feudal wars, were greatly changed. In the new era of security, they preferred to have more peaceful mansions in a new style, which was called Elizabethan, from the name of the queen. The houses of the other classes of the people were also made much more comfortable. Formerly they were wretched in the extreme. 'These English have houses made of sticks and dirt,' said the Spaniards in Queen Mary's time; 'but they fare commonly as well as kings.' At that period chimneys were very rare. Instead of windows they had lattices; their bed was a straw pallet, with a wooden log for pillow or bolster; the floors were generally strewn with rushes. During the reign of Elizabeth all this was changed. Chimneys, glass windows, feather-beds, and carpets were generally introduced. The bareness of the walls was concealed by hangings, or they were wainscoted—that is, covered with panels of oak or other wood. In fact, it was under the reign of the 'Good Queen Bess' that the English began to be prosperous and comfortable. We have greatly improved upon the beginning that was then made.

4. Food.—The English have always been famous for their good and abundant eating; even modern historians partly

ascribe to this cause the great victories gained by the Henrys and Edwards over the French. Were we to see a meal of the sixteenth century, we should meet with many a surprise. We should miss the tea and coffee and many other nice things, which use has almost made necessities of life. We should be astonished at the liberal quantities of beer and beef consumed even at breakfast by those who could afford it, but most of all perhaps at the rudeness of the arrangements. Still, things were rapidly improving. Our useful friend, the potato, was introduced from South America in Elizabeth's reign. Knives for eating were introduced in 1563; forks not till 1611. Wooden platters were exchanged for pewter, and wooden spoons gave place to silver and tin. China-ware was also coming in. The time for the different meals was remarkable. Fashionable people dined at eleven and supped at five, while farmers dined at one and supped at seven.

5. Dress.—As in all ages, so in the sixteenth century, there was great extravagance in dress. Under Henry VIII., indeed, the fashion was comparatively simple, but in the time of Elizabeth, and under her patronage, it became quite unreasonable. The chief article of costume of gentlemen was the doublet, which at first fitted close to the waist, but latterly began to expand to an enormous width by means of stuffing and padding. The hose underwent the same change, from the extreme of tightness to the extreme of artificial bulk. Over the doublet was worn a cloak, often of the most costly material, and garnished with precious stones. Ruffs of lawn or cambric of an extravagant size, and stiffened with starch, were worn by both sexes. In Elizabeth's time the farthingale was introduced. It was not unlike our crinoline, and was stuffed and padded to an extraordinary size. False hair of the most elaborate make and of various colours was worn. Queen Elizabeth herself was the leader of fashion, and set the example; her vanity and love of finery and display knew no bounds; at her death she left three thousand dresses in her wardrobe.

6. Amusements.—As regards amusements, too, we differ greatly from our forefathers. Modern England is the country of industry, of hard work, and of the incessant desire to get on and to accumulate wealth. Old England was also 'Merrie England,' in which men enjoyed themselves and took life easy. Holidays were constantly coming round, which were celebrated according to the season. On the first of May they danced round

the May-pole on the village green ; at Christmas they had a jolly time of it inside. On such occasions, as also at weddings, fairs, and wakes, the mirth was unrestrained, and the ale and the roast-beef were generously supplied. For the people of London the theatre became a wonderfully popular place of resort. It was also a great national institution, where the plays of Shakespeare first began to win the admiration of the world.

7. *Travelling.*—In the time of Elizabeth there was hardly a good road in England ; carriages were newly introduced, and were very scarce. Consequently, communication was painfully slow. At the present day, for a comparatively small fare, we can travel in a comfortable railway-carriage from London to Edinburgh in nine hours. In Elizabeth's time it would have been a journey of many days, at great expense and no little danger from exposure to cold, floods, and the risk of highway robbery.

8. *Education.*—When we read of the Reformation and of the undoubted blessings which it conferred upon the country, it is well to remember that in England only a small part of the population enjoyed the full benefit of it. The mass of the people were uneducated, and could not read Tyndale's translation of the Bible. It is only in our day that the duty has been recognised of teaching every child to read, and throwing the gates of knowledge open to every citizen. In the sixteenth century great ignorance of the commonest things and the most lamentable superstition still prevailed ; such as the belief in witchcraft, in astrology—according to which the stars had great influence on human affairs—and many other unfounded and prejudicial opinions. Worst of all, perhaps, was the ignorant neglect of cleanliness and the laws of health, by which epidemic diseases of all sorts were propagated. Life was much shorter in those days ; it had fewer comforts and resources. With all its jollity Old England was not near so happy or healthy as the England of to-day.

9. *The Poor.*—A puzzling question in the sixteenth century, as it has been ever since, was the condition of the poor. Owing to many causes, which it would require a long time to explain, great multitudes of men were thrown out of employment. And the monasteries, which used to feed the poor, were broken up. Under these circumstances men were reduced to roam over the country seeking means of support ; work was scarce, and they took to a vagrant life, often even to stealing and violence. Laws

of extreme severity were passed against those vagrants without much effect, though hundreds of them were hanged every year. As the country got more settled and prosperous during Elizabeth's reign, the evil gradually decreased. Still there were a great many poor, who could not work or could not find employment. Hence it was found necessary to pass a regular poor-law, and so, in 1601, it was decided that each parish should be responsible for its own poor. This was the beginning of our poor-laws. Sometimes as many as a fourth or a fifth of the population have been in receipt of support from the parish.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is the important question in history?
2. What differences could we note between Old England and the England of the present day?
3. Describe some of the improvements made in the houses.
4. What striking contrasts do we observe as to food?
5. What do we hear about the dress of that time?
6. What name did Old England deservedly obtain as regards amusements? Name some of the holidays. The theatre?
7. What made travelling so difficult?
8. What do we know of the defectiveness of education in England?
9. What do we hear of the condition of the poor? The poor-laws?

THE HOUSE OF STUART.

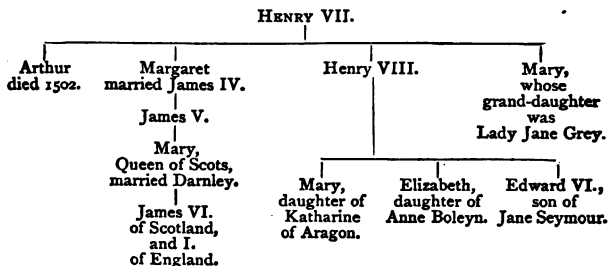
CHAPTER I.

JAMES I. (1603-1625).*

1. **James I.**—With Elizabeth the family of Henry VIII. died out. In this way the crown of England passed to the family of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII., who had married James IV. of Scotland. Thus James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and a descendant of James IV., became king of England under the name of James I. With James begins the Stuart line of English kings. The crowns of England and Scotland were united, but not the nations themselves; this union of the nations was not to take place till long afterwards. James had been well drilled in all the learning of the time; he was not without ability, and was often shrewd and witty. But he was extremely nervous; his manners were awkward, and not a little shocked the English, who were accustomed to the grace and dignity of Elizabeth's court. They received him, however, with great cordiality and respect.

2. **Hampton Court Conference.**—The Puritans expected better treatment from James than they had received from Elizabeth. They presented a great petition, called the *Millenary* Petition,

* *Family Tree, shewing the descent of James I. from Henry VII., and his title to the English crown.*



because it came from a *thousand* clergymen, praying to be relieved from certain church ceremonies, which they thought wrong. They were invited to a conference at Hampton Court, but were not kindly treated, and their petition was rejected. James had no liking for Puritanism, or for the Presbyterianism of Scotland. The only good that came of the conference was the improved translation of the Bible, called the authorised version, which we still use.

3. Gunpowder Plot.—The Catholics also expected milder treatment from the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, especially as James had given some proof of a leaning to Catholicism. They also were disappointed. Their fines were more strictly exacted; and some of them, grown desperate, resolved to blow up both Houses of Parliament. The contriver of the plot was a gentleman, Robert Catesby, who persuaded Guy Fawkes and others to join him. Finding a cellar beneath the House of Lords, they filled it with barrels of gunpowder, and made everything ready for the 5th of November (1605), when parliament was to begin its sittings. But Tresham, one of the conspirators, had a relative in the House of Lords, Lord Monteagle, whom he wished to save. He wrote to Lord Monteagle, and the plot was revealed. On the night of 4th November, Guy Fawkes was found among the barrels of gunpowder. The plotters perished, and the 'Gunpowder Plot' greatly increased the dislike to Romanism.

4. The Parliament.—The great fact to remember about the Stuart kings is, that they never understood how to get on with the parliament. James was a firm believer in the 'divine right of kings;' he held that they derived their power from God above, and that they were not responsible to the people. He claimed the right to impose taxes without the consent of parliament, and to set aside the laws when he pleased. When the parliament resisted, James used to dismiss it. It was otherwise, however, with that of 1621, as James was in great want of money, and required to let it have its own way. In this parliament, the Lord Chancellor Bacon, a great philosopher and a very distinguished man, was impeached for receiving bribes, and was severely punished.

5. The King's Favourites.—After the death of his minister Cecil in 1612, James fell more and more under the influence of favourites, whom he raised to very high honour and treated with the most extravagant affection. The first was a Scotchman,

Robert Carr, whom he created Earl of Somerset; after Somerset's downfall, George Villiers, a young English gentleman, gained the royal affection. James created him Duke of Buckingham, but used to call him by the pet name of Steenie. Buckingham had great influence, which he did not use well.

6. Foreign Affairs. — James disliked war, and sought the friendship of the Catholic powers, especially of Spain, in this point greatly offending his subjects. The famous Raleigh had been condemned to death for conspiracy at the beginning of his reign, and had been imprisoned ever since. At last he got leave to sail for Guiana to look after a gold mine that he knew of out there, but came into conflict with the Spaniards, and returned home unsuccessful. James now had him beheaded on the old charge of conspiracy (1618), but men thought it was a sacrifice to the vengeance of Spain. James's daughter, Elizabeth, was married to Frederick, the elector-palatine of Germany. Though this son-in-law was driven from his dominions by the Catholics, James could not decide to give him any real help, and even sought to marry his son Charles to the Infanta, the Princess Maria of Spain. Charles and the favourite Buckingham even made a foolish journey in disguise to Spain, meaning to hasten the marriage by courting the princess in person. The journey was unsuccessful in every way. The match was broken off, to the great joy of the people, who were disgusted and indignant at the Catholic leanings of James.

7. Colonies.—This reign saw the beginning of the English colonies. After a fresh revolt of some chiefs in the north of Ireland, great part of the land was allotted to Scotch and English settlers. This was called the Ulster Plantation (1610). Far more important were the settlements in America, with which the colonial empire of England really began. In 1607, the colony of Virginia was founded by some English gentlemen. In 1620, a hundred English Puritans sailed across the Atlantic in the *Mayflower* in quest of religious freedom. They landed at Plymouth Rock, and settled there in a bleak climate and surrounded by a wilderness of which savage Indians were the only inhabitants. This was the origin of the famous colonies of New England. These colonies prospered, and in course of time became the United States of America. With the foundation of these American colonies the English people began to spread over the remote regions of the world, and to build up a great empire.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. James I. ascends the throne.....	1603
2. He meets the Puritans at Hampton Court Conference.....	1604
3. The Gunpowder Plot is discovered.....	1605
4. James quarrels with his parliaments.	
5. James falls under the influence of favourites.	
6. James seeks the friendship of Spain.	
James dies.....	1625
7. The Plantation of Ulster is begun.....	1610
American colonies—Colony of Virginia is founded, 1607;	
first New England colony is founded.....	1620

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who now ascended the English throne? His title and character?
2. What did the Puritans expect of James?
3. What was the Gunpowder Plot?
4. What is the great fact to remember about the Stuart kings?
5. Who were the king's favourites?
6. What was the fate of Raleigh? To whom was Elizabeth, daughter of James, married? Charles's courtship?
7. What is meant by the Ulster Plantation? Which was the first of the American colonies? The New England colonies?

CHAPTER II.

CHARLES I. (1625-1649).

1. **Charles I.**—Charles, son of James I., now ascended the throne in his twenty-fifth year. Very soon after his accession he married Henrietta of France, a marriage which was not very popular, as the bride was a Catholic. The Duke of Buckingham continued to be the dear friend and counsellor of Charles, as he had been the favourite of James. But in many respects Charles was very unlike his father; he was dignified, refined, devout, and well conducted in every way.

2. **The Parliament.**—But Charles had the same love of absolute power as his father. He could never understand his parliaments, or learn the right way of dealing with them. Being engaged in war with Spain at the beginning of his reign, Charles applied to the Commons for money. They refused to grant it till their grievances were redressed, and were immediately dismissed.

The king then proceeded to raise money by illegal methods. Men were compelled to pay great loans, of which they saw little prospect of repayment. Certain duties on exports and imports, called tonnage and poundage, were levied, in an arbitrary manner. If any one refused to pay, he was thrown into prison; while soldiers were raised, and quartered on the people, whom they often pillaged unmercifully. A great deal of the money thus collected was spent on a short but unfortunate war with France. Buckingham led an expedition to the relief of Rochelle, a Protestant town besieged by the French Catholics. But the Protestant inhabitants had no faith in him, and refused to admit him. When he landed on the island of Rhé, he was defeated by the French with great loss (1627).

3. **The Petition of Right.**—The want of money caused by this expedition obliged the king to summon another parliament. The first thing the House of Commons did was to draw up a petition, called the Petition of Right, in which all the illegal practices were condemned. In his need of money, Charles gave a forced and not very sincere assent to the petition. If he had been quite straightforward, the worst of the difficulties with parliament might have been over. But when the Commons began to claim the due fulfilment of the Petition of Right, he dismissed them.

4. **Government without Parliament.**—Ere the parliament re-assembled (early in 1629), Buckingham was dead. He was murdered by one John Felton at Portsmouth, when he was ready to start on another expedition to Rochelle (1628). Yet the death of Buckingham did not lessen the difficulties between the king and the parliament. There was much to complain of—violations of the Petition of Right, and the spread of ideas in the Church which the Commons disapproved. At last the king dissolved the parliament, and resolved to do without it altogether. For eleven years parliament never met. In this government without parliament, Charles followed the advice of two counsellors—Sir Thomas Wentworth, soon to become Earl of Strafford, and Laud. Strafford was at one time a leader of the opposition to the king in parliament; but he went over to the king's interest, became his great adviser in state affairs, and urged him to the most despotic measures. Laud, Bishop of London, soon after Archbishop of Canterbury, advised the king in the affairs of the church. He was so fond of ceremony in worship, that men accused him of leaning to Romanism.

5. Illegal Taxation.—The great difficulty in this government without parliament was to raise money. Fines and taxes of the most oppressive nature were exacted. Tonnage and poundage were levied by authority of the king, and almost every article in common use was farmed out to monopolists. But the tax that excited most indignation in the country was the famous ship-money. In time of war, the counties on the coast were required to raise ships for the defence of the country. Money was now taken instead, from the inland counties as well, in a time of profound peace, and for the purpose of destroying the liberties of the country. When the celebrated John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused to pay the tax of twenty shillings imposed upon him, the case came before the judges, and the decision was given against him (1637).

6. Laud and the Puritans.—The affairs of the Church were equally unsatisfactory to a great part of the nation. Archbishop Laud began to introduce many things which were considered Popish, such as images, crosses, and painted windows; altars were set up and many ceremonies performed. These practices, however, were very displeasing to the Puritans. The Puritans believed that God could be worshipped in the heart alone, and that all ceremonies were useless, or even sinful. They were grave and serious men, who did not like the fashionable follies and amusements of the time. What they wanted was a purer worship and a purer life; they objected to Laud's doings as tending to idolatry and Popery. But Laud was resolved to make them conform; and if they spoke against him, he made them pay fines or put them in prison, or had them whipped through the streets, or put in the pillory. All this awakened great indignation. Thousands of the Puritans left the country and went to America.

7. Outbreak in Scotland.—In 1637 a great outbreak took place in Scotland, because the king and Laud sought to introduce into the Scottish Church a form of worship similar to that which they favoured in England. When the priests attempted to read a prayer-book in one of the Edinburgh churches, a furious riot took place. The Scottish nation swore to a National Covenant, and raised an army against the king. Charles raised an army too; but, not being strong enough to put down the Scots, he made a truce with them. Being in great want of money, he summoned a parliament (1640), called the *Short Parliament*, because he soon dissolved it, when it would not grant him

supplies. The same year, the Scottish army marched south to Newcastle, with very little opposition from the English, who were very discontented, and looked upon the Scotch as their friends.

8. **The Long Parliament.**—The king was now reduced to great straits. The nation was discontented; he had no money; the Scottish army lay encamped on English soil. He was obliged to call another parliament, which sat for a very long time, and so was called the *Long Parliament*. This parliament set vigorously to work to reform the many abuses in the government, and to punish those servants of the king who had helped him to oppress the country. The Earl of Strafford, chief minister of the king, and a very able and ambitious man, who for some years had governed Ireland with great severity, was declared a traitor to his country, and was executed. Laud was cast into prison, as were also many of the judges. Ship-money and all the other arbitrary exactions of the king were condemned. The Star Chamber and Court of High Commission were abolished. A bill was passed enacting that parliaments should be called every three years (triennial parliaments); and the power of dismissing the parliament at his pleasure was taken from the king.

9. **Continued Difficulties.**—The Commons had got all they wanted for the good government of the country. If they could have trusted the king, all would now have been well; but Charles never was straightforward with his subjects. He went north, and succeeded in pacifying Scotland, but in such a way as to excite the distrust of the English parliament, who feared that he wished to break up the alliance between it and Scotland. Then came the fearful news that the Irish Catholics had risen against the English colonists, and committed the most terrible atrocities upon them. In the suspicious mood of the time, many accused the king of some share in the massacre.

10. **Attempted Arrest of the Five Members.**—On the king's return to London, a Grand Remonstrance, detailing all their grievances against him, was drawn up by the Commons. This remonstrance was passed only after a very stormy discussion. Most moderate men were beginning to think that reform had gone far enough; and if Charles had acted wisely, he would soon have found the majority of the country on his side. Just at this very time he went to the Commons with a body of armed men, to demand the arrest of five prominent members, including Pym and Hampden. Fortunately they had received

notice of the king's intention, and so had time to absent themselves. But this breach of parliamentary privilege excited the utmost indignation not only in the Commons, but in London, and all over the country. The king soon felt that he was in the midst of a hostile city, and left London, never to return till his trial and execution.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Charles I. ascends the throne.....	1625
2. Charles quarrels with his Parliaments.	
3. The Petition of Right is adopted.....	1628
4. Charles rules without Parliament.....	1629
5. Charles raises taxes by illegal methods.	
John Hampden refuses to pay ship-money.....	1637
6. Laud offends the Puritans.	
7. A great rising takes place in Scotland.....	1638
A Scottish army invades England.....	1640
8. The Long Parliament meets; Strafford is executed.....	1640
9. A great rebellion takes place in Ireland.....	1641
10. Charles attempts to arrest the 'Five Members'.....	1642

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. The character of Charles? His great friend?
2. Charles's relations to the parliament? The end of Buckingham?
3. What was the Petition of Right?
4. What was the nature of the rule without parliament?
5. Explain ship-money. How did John Hampden act?
6. How did Laud offend the Puritans?
7. What now happened in Scotland? The Short Parliament?
8. Describe the proceedings of the Long Parliament.
9. What was the effect of Charles's visit to Scotland? What fearful news came from Ireland about this time?
10. What was the Grand Remonstrance? What is meant by the arrest of the Five Members?



Map of England to illustrate the Civil War.

CHAPTER III.

THE CIVIL WAR AND THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. Outbreak of the Civil War.—The parliament had now lost all faith in the king. To prevent him from using force against them, they demanded the control of the militia, which was the only army in the country. But Charles refused: 'No; not for an hour.' In the summer of 1642 he set up his standard at

Nottingham, and the civil war began. The nobility and the people of the west and north mostly sided with the king, while the inhabitants of London and the large towns, as well as the eastern counties, went with the parliament. As the best Royalist soldiers were gentlemen who fought on horseback, they were called *Cavaliers*. The Puritans were called *Roundheads* probably because they wore their hair short, while the fashionable cavaliers wore theirs long. The first great battle of the war was fought at Edgehill (1642). It was undecisive. Prince Rupert, a nephew of the king, greatly distinguished himself at the head of the royal cavalry. The Earl of Essex commanded the Parliamentary forces.

2. Events of 1643.—The campaign of this year was generally favourable to the king. His troops were victorious in several engagements. He took Bristol, the second town in the kingdom, though he failed at Gloucester. Prince Rupert's cavalry was the terror of the Parliamentary forces, scouring the country in all directions, and giving them no rest. This year Pym, the great leader of the Commons, died; the noble Hampden was slain in a skirmish with Rupert at Chalgrove Field; and Lord Falkland, a very good and eminent man on the Royalist side, was slain at the battle of Newbury. The same year, the parliament made a Solemn League and Covenant with Scotland, the parliament promising to set up Presbyterianism in England, while the Scots were to send an army to help them against the king.

3. Events of 1644.—This year the Royalists sustained a complete defeat at Marston Moor. The Scotch fought here on the side of parliament; but the victory was won by the great Oliver Cromwell, who now began to take a leading part in the war. Cromwell was a native of Huntingdon, a religious man, and a very earnest Puritan, who had always been opposed to the arbitrary rule of Charles. He told Hampden that tapsters and decayed serving-men, and such base and mean fellows as they had in the Parliamentary army, would never be a match for the gentlemen of the royal army; so he set himself to raise a cavalry regiment of earnest Puritan freeholders, who had high principles of patriotism and religion, and knew the cause they were fighting for. These men completely beat the cavalry of Rupert at Marston Moor. This year also there was a second battle at Newbury, which was indecisive.

4. Naseby.—The Parliamentary army was completely remodelled for the campaign of 1645—the 'new model' as it was

called. The old generals, such as the Earl of Essex, were obliged to make way for more active men. This was accomplished by the 'self-denying ordinance,' which excluded members of parliament from commanding in the army. Cromwell, however, joined the army for a short time, when the great victory of Naseby was gained by the Parliamentary forces. This decided the war; the royal towns and fortresses were speedily taken; the last hope of Charles was crushed by the complete overthrow of Montrose at Philiphaugh.

5. *Second Civil War.*—The king now sought refuge with the Scottish army, which after a time surrendered him to the parliament. How to arrange the future government of the country was now the great difficulty. Both parliament and army would gladly have come to terms with Charles; but he could not be trusted. They found that he was trying to make them quarrel with each other, and that he was intriguing with the Scots, and the remnants of the royal cause in England and Ireland, in the most deceitful way. These intrigues soon led to a second civil war. A Scotch army had marched into England on his behalf, but it was scattered by Cromwell at Preston (1648), and the Royalist risings in England were put down.

6. *Quarrel between the Army and Parliament.*—The army and the parliament now came to open feud with each other; for while the parliament was mostly Presbyterian, the army following the lead of Cromwell and his friends was mostly *Independent*. The *Independents*, often called *sectaries*, believed that each congregation should be independent in the management of its own affairs, and should not be controlled by presbyteries. They believed also in *toleration*—holding that each man should be free to choose his own religion, and should not be molested for it by anybody. After putting down the king, this army now resolved to put down the parliament. One day a body of soldiers, under a Colonel Pride, proceeded to the House of Commons, and turned away about a hundred of the members who were opposed to the army. This was called 'Pride's Purge.' The fifty remaining members, called the 'Rump,' were now ready to do the will of the army.

7. *Trial and Death of Charles.*—The Rump Parliament accordingly proceeded to name judges, before whom the king was tried for treason against the people of England. He was sentenced to execution, and died with great calmness and dignity at Whitehall, 30th January 1649.

8. **The Commonwealth.**—The king was dead, and the House of Lords was abolished. England now became a Commonwealth or republic, in which a parliament consisting of the remnants of Pride's Purge was supreme. The executive, or active government, was in the hands of a council of state of forty-one members. The will of the government was carried into effect by the army, which under the command of the great Cromwell now proceeded to subdue Ireland and Scotland.

9. **Ireland and Scotland.**—He first crossed over to Ireland, where he stormed Drogheda and Wexford, treating his enemies with very great severity. In a few months, nearly the whole country was at his feet. Next year (1650) Cromwell marched against the Scots, who had invited Charles, son of the late king, to rule over them. The Scottish army under David Leslie was completely overthrown at Dunbar (3d September 1650). Another Scottish army, which marched southwards into England, was overtaken by Cromwell at Worcester, and there destroyed (3d September 1651). The young Charles was at Worcester, and had many narrow escapes from being taken after the battle. Cromwell left General Monk to command the army in Scotland.

10. **War with Holland.**—In 1652, the Commonwealth engaged in war with Holland. This war was remarkable for the many hard and stubborn battles between the seamen of England under Admiral Blake and the Dutch sailors under Van Tromp, who hoisted a besom at his mast-head, as a sign that he would sweep the English from the sea. The contest was very equal at first; but after some defeats and the death of Van Tromp, the Dutch were obliged to sue for peace, which was concluded in 1654.

11. **The Protectorate—Home Affairs.**—Cromwell, whose influence with the army was supreme, had now been for some years the actual ruler of England. But he had his difficulties with the Rump Parliament. At last he lost patience with it; went to the House with some soldiers and dismissed it. The 'Barebones Parliament'—so called from the quaint name of one of its members—which next met, made Cromwell supreme ruler of England under the name of Lord Protector. He would gladly have been king, but for the opposition of the army. As Lord Protector he desired to govern England under the advice of a parliament, and he did call one repeatedly. But he always found the parliament unmanageable, as the Royalists, the Presbyterians, and the extreme republicans were alike opposed to

him. Many plots and risings were made against his government, but he held his place against them all, with the help of his army; and he ruled England, Scotland, and Ireland, as long as he lived, in a way that secured justice and prosperity.

12. Foreign Affairs.—In no reign were the foreign affairs of England more vigorously conducted than under the rule of Cromwell. It was his aim to be the champion of Protestantism in Europe. The Waldenses were protected from the Duke of Savoy; the Pope and the pirates of Tunis alike trembled before the cannon of Blake, the great English admiral. In 1655, the West Indian possessions of Spain were threatened, and Jamaica taken. In 1657, the Spanish fleet and treasure-ships were burned by Blake in the harbour of Santa Cruz, Teneriffe. In 1658, Dunkirk was taken from Spain by the allied armies of England and France. Cromwell kept possession of it.

13. Death of Cromwell.—Broken with disease, and weary with the difficulty of governing an unwilling country, Cromwell died in 1658, on the 3d September, his 'fortunate day,' the anniversary of Dunbar and Worcester. He was a man of the most marvellous genius, who, after the age of forty, taught himself to be an invincible commander and a wise statesman. His moral earnestness and patriotism were equally remarkable. He was free from all vulgar ambition, and accepted the government of the country only because it was forced upon him by circumstances, and because he was the one man that was equal to the task. The great aim of his life and government was that the cause of truth and righteousness should prevail in England.

14. The Restoration.—Oliver's son Richard succeeded him as Lord Protector. He was a quiet man, and quite unable to control the army. The chief officers quarrelled; Richard was deposed; and everything fell into confusion. General Monk, commander of the forces quartered in Scotland, at last marched south to restore order (1660). Monk was a cold and silent man, who waited till he saw what the country wished. All the surviving members of the Long Parliament now met again, when, after ordering a general election, it decreed its own dissolution. Then met a parliament or convention, as it is called, because it was summoned without royal authority; and it invited the young Charles, son of the late king, from his exile. Charles accordingly returned home, amid the jubilation of the people, who were weary of the civil troubles and of the tyranny of the army.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. The civil war begins.....	1642
The battle of Edgehill is fought.....	1642
2. The Royalists take Bristol; Hampden is slain.....	1643
3. The Royalists are routed at Marston Moor.....	1644
4. The Parliamentary army is remodelled, and overthrows the Royalists at Naseby.....	1645
5. The Scotch surrender Charles to the parliament.....	1646
A Royalist army from Scotland is beaten at Preston.....	1648
6. The parliament quarrels with the army; 'Pride's Purge'.....	1648
7. Charles is tried and executed.....	1649
8. England is now a Commonwealth.....	
9. Cromwell subdues Ireland.....	1649
Cromwell overthrows the Scots at Dunbar.....	1650
And again at Worcester.....	1651
10. The English fight the Dutch on the sea.....	1652
11. Cromwell is appointed Lord Protector.....	1653
12. A Spanish fleet is destroyed at Teneriffe.....	1657
13. Cromwell dies.....	1658
14. Charles II. is restored.....	1660

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

- Where did Charles raise his standard? What were his adherents called? Name given to the Puritans? First great battle?
- What successes did the king gain in 1643? What distinguished men died in that year? The Solemn League and Covenant?
- Who fought at Marston Moor?
- What was the 'new model'? Naseby?
- What now became of the king? The battle of Preston?
- What great quarrel next broke out? Explain 'Pride's Purge.'
- The fate of King Charles? On what charge was he tried?
- What form of government was now established in England?
- Where was Cromwell's next scene of activity? In what great battles were young Charles's forces overthrown?
- The nature of the war with Holland?
- What title and office were conferred on Cromwell?
- What was the object of Cromwell's policy abroad?
- On what year and day did Cromwell die?
- Who succeeded Cromwell? The result?

CHAPTER IV.

CHARLES II. (1660-1685).

1. **Charles.**—The new king was thirty years of age. He had spent most of his life in exile. He was clever, exquisitely courteous, with the manners and accomplishments of a gentleman; but he had neither heart, nor conscience, nor belief in human nature. Soon after his accession he married Katharine of Portugal, who brought him a large dowry in money, and the fortresses of Tangier in Africa, and of Bombay in the East Indies. His brother, the Duke of York, became a convert to Catholicism; and Charles himself, so far as he had any religion at all, had a leaning the same way.

2. **The Convention Parliament.**—The Convention which recalled Charles also passed an *Act of Indemnity*, by which a general pardon was granted to all who were concerned in the civil war against the late king. Most of the king's judges, or *regicides* as they were called, were excluded from its benefits, thirteen of them being executed and others imprisoned for life. A miserable revenge was taken upon Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw whose dead bodies were dragged from their tombs at Westminster, and hanged at Tyburn. By the same Convention Parliament an ample revenue was fixed upon the king for life.

3. **The Cavalier Parliament.**—In the next parliament, which met in 1661, the cavaliers had an overwhelming majority. Their zeal for loyalty and their hatred of Puritanism were alike unbounded. Very severe laws were accordingly passed against such as would not conform to the Church of England, the Nonconformists or Dissenters, as they were called. (1) The Corporation Act required every officer of a corporation to take the communion according to the forms of the Church of England, and to swear that it was unlawful to take up arms against the king (passive obedience). (2) The Act of Uniformity required every clergyman, and even every schoolmaster, to accept everything in the Book of Common Prayer. By this act two thousand clergymen were expelled from their livings.

4. **The Great Plague.**—Two fearful calamities now befel the city of London. In 1665 an awful plague broke out, which desolated it for six months. The rich fled from the city; grass grew on

the deserted streets ; scarcely a sound was heard but the cry of those who went round with the dead-cart, 'Bring out your dead ;' almost every door was marked with the fatal sign of the plague—a red cross with the words, 'Lord have mercy upon us.' About a hundred thousand people are said to have perished. The plague, which had been caused or greatly aggravated by the filth of the city and the excessive heat of the summer, abated at the approach of winter.

5. **The Great Fire.**—Next year a great fire burned down great part of the city. It broke out accidentally, and did not stop till it had consumed 13,000 houses, and devastated an area of 430 acres, all the most crowded parts of the city from the Tower to Temple Bar being destroyed. The light was visible from a distance of forty miles ; and the progress of the flames was stayed only by blowing up the adjoining houses with gunpowder. But the fire had this good effect, that it burned down the unhealthy parts of the city, which were replaced by better streets and better houses.

6. **War with the Dutch.**—Meanwhile the country was carrying on an inglorious war with Holland, which arose out of some commercial disputes. Our sailors fought with their usual courage ; but Charles squandered the money granted by parliament for equipping the fleet. The Dutch seized the opportunity to enter the Thames and blockade London ; to sail up the Medway and burn the dockyard and all the shipping at Chatham. It is said that while the thunder of the Dutch cannon was heard in London, Charles and his ladies were amusing themselves with hunting a moth about the supper-room. Good Englishmen were ashamed of their country, and began to wish Cromwell back again. The war was concluded by the Peace of Breda (1667).

7. **The Cabal.**—These misfortunes excited great indignation throughout the country, and led to the downfall of Clarendon. Clarendon was the chief adviser of Charles, and had done many unpopular acts, but was accused of many for which he was not responsible ; to escape trial he went into exile. He was succeeded in his duties by five men—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale—whose initial letters spelt the word Cabal, which, though in use before, was now applied to them, and has been since used in a bad sense.

8. **France and the Treaty of Dover.**—France had now taken the place of Spain as the most powerful nation of the continent. All the neighbouring nations were alarmed at the ambition of its

king, Louis XIV. Accordingly in 1668, England, Sweden, and Holland formed the Triple Alliance against him. Charles increased his popularity by consenting to this alliance; but ere-long he took a very different step. In 1670 he sold himself to France by the secret *Treaty of Dover*. By this treaty Charles bound himself to restore Catholicism in England, and to assist Louis against Holland, on condition that he should receive an annual pension from France, and the help of a French army to put down any insurrections in England. This disgraceful bargain was known to only two or three of Charles's ministers, but the existence of such a treaty was long suspected.

9. *Second War with Holland.*—In accordance with this secret treaty, war was declared a second time against Holland. It was a most disgraceful war in every way. The money granted for the war was squandered in the most profligate manner, and the government 'shut the Exchequer,' that is, suspended payment of the debts due to the London bankers. While Louis tried to conquer the Dutch by land, the fleet of Charles fought them by sea, and not successfully.

10. *The Fear of Popery.*—The Duke of York, the nearest heir to the throne, was a Roman Catholic. Charles too was suspected of a leaning that way, and of the secret treaty with France. In these circumstances, men lost confidence in the government, and the fear of Popery became very powerful. This led in 1673 to the Test Act, which required all who held a civil and military office to take the communion according to the forms of the Church of England, and to make a declaration against Popery. By this act the Duke of York was deprived of the office of high admiral. In 1678 the fear of Popery became a national panic. Titus Oates, one of the most infamous rascals in history, came forward with the story of a plot, which he pretended the Roman Catholics had laid for the massacre of the Protestants and the assassination of the king. It was an invention; yet the country believed it, and many innocent Catholics were put to death owing to the lying stories of Oates and others like him.

11. *Events of 1679.*—This was a year of fearful excitement in England. A bill was passed preventing Catholics from sitting in parliament. Another called the *Exclusion Bill*, because the object of it was to exclude the Duke of York from the succession, became the subject of fierce contention, during which the words *Whig* and *Tory* came into current use. Whig was the name given to the Covenanters of the west of Scotland, and was now

applied to the opponents of the Duke of York, who supported the Exclusion Bill. The friends of the Duke of York were called Tories, a name which used to be applied to the Catholic outlaws that haunted the bogs in Ireland. It was the design of many of the Whigs to raise the Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles, to the throne. The bill was ultimately rejected by the House of Lords. The same year, however, the great *Habeas Corpus Act* was passed, the aim of which was to secure that no one be detained in prison without fair trial.

12. *Whig Plots.*—Many of the leading Whigs now entered into a conspiracy against Charles. They desired merely to make a change in the government. But there were a few desperate plotters of inferior rank, who laid a plan for assassinating the king on his return from Newmarket, at a place called the Rye-House. The conspiracy was discovered. Shaftesbury, the leader of the Whigs, fled to the continent, while Russell and Sidney died on the scaffold. After this the king had everything his own way; he called no more parliaments till his death in 1685.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Charles becomes king at thirty years of age.....	1660
2. The Convention Parliament still sits.....	
3. The Cavalier Parliament passes severe laws against Dissenters.....	1661
4. The Great Plague rages in London.....	1665
5. The Great Fire breaks out in London.....	1666
6. England wages an inglorious war with Holland, which is concluded by the Peace of Breda.....	1667
7. Clarendon goes into exile, and the Cabal succeeds to power.....	1667
8. England enters into the 'Triple Alliance' against France.....	1668
Charles sells himself to France by the Treaty of Dover.....	1670
9. War again breaks out with Holland.....	
10. The Test Act is passed.....	1673
A panic against Popery, excited by the lies of Titus Oates.....	1673
11. The Whigs attempt to carry the Exclusion Bill.....	1679
The Habeas Corpus Act is passed.....	1679
12. The Rye-House Plot is discovered.....	1683
Charles dies.....	1685

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. How old was king Charles at the restoration? His character?
2. The name of the parliament that recalled Charles? Its acts?
3. What was the Cavalier Parliament? Its acts?
4. What great calamity now visited the city of London?

5. What other great calamity happened about this time?
 6. What disgraceful war now broke out?
 7. What became of Clarendon? What party succeeded?
 8. What was the position of France at this period? What great alliance was formed against it? The Treaty of Dover?
 9. The reason of the second war with Holland? Its nature?
 10. What led to such a fear of Popery during this reign? What was the Test Act? What stories were got up by Titus Oates?
 11. Describe the state of the country in 1679. Explain the Exclusion Bill; the names Whig and Tory; the Habeas Corpus Act.
 12. What was the Rye-House plot? Its result?
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CHAPTER V.

JAMES II. (1685-1688).

1. **James II.**—James, brother of Charles, now ascended the throne. His first wife was a daughter of the Earl of Clarendon; and by her he had two daughters, Mary and Anne, who were brought up as Protestants, and both lived to rule over England. Mary was already married to the Prince of Orange; and James himself had taken a second wife, Mary of Modena.

2. **Rebellion of Monmouth.**—James was a Catholic; but at the beginning of his reign he had declared his intention to maintain the Established Church, and the greater part of the nation trusted him as a man of his word. Yet when the Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles II., landed with a band of discontented Whigs in Dorsetshire, he soon gathered round him a considerable army. It consisted chiefly of the common people, among whom he had always been a great favourite; none of the nobility joined him. At Sedgemoor this army was completely defeated. Monmouth soon lost heart and fled, abandoning his poor followers, many of whom, though undisciplined and badly armed, fought very bravely. Their leader was found hiding in a ditch in shepherd's clothes, and was taken to London, where he was executed. The rebels were treated with great severity, scores of them being hanged by Colonel Kirke, whose soldiers, nicknamed 'Kirke's Lambs,' were notorious for their ferocity. Judge Jeffreys, a man whose natural brutality was heightened by habits of intoxication, was sent west to try the prisoners. In the 'Bloody Assizes' he did

his work so well, that James rewarded him by making him Lord Chancellor. Hundreds of the insurgents were hanged, and hundreds more were sold as slaves to the West Indies. The Earl of Argyll, who landed about the same time on the west of Scotland, also utterly failed.

3. Government of James.—James was sincere, even to bigotry, in his religious beliefs. Notwithstanding his promise at the beginning of his reign, he soon made it his one aim to restore Catholicism in England, and by methods which the Pope and the wisest of his Catholic friends disapproved. He used his royal authority, as head of the English Church, to enforce the obedience of the clergy. He set aside the Test Act, which excluded Catholics from all offices. He raised them to high positions in the Church and at the universities. He strove to raise a formidable army entirely devoted to his will, and officered by Catholics. He surrounded himself with statesmen of the same persuasion; a Jesuit, Father Petre, was one of his chief advisers. He even went the length of nullifying the Test Act altogether, by using what is called the 'Dispensing Power,' to save the Catholics from the penalties attached to it. In this way he grievously offended even his staunchest friends. At last finding that the Tories, in spite of their profession of passive obedience, were beginning to resent his attacks on the Church, he sought to win the help of the Dissenters, by illegally publishing a Declaration of Indulgence in their favour.

4. Trial of the Seven Bishops.—In 1688 he not only published a second Declaration of Indulgence, but by an 'Order in Council' commanded that it should be read by the clergy at the time of divine service. Seven bishops, including the Archbishop of Canterbury, presented a petition against this order. James was so angry, that he had them brought to trial; but they were acquitted, to the joy of the whole nation, even the army joining in the universal jubilation.

5. The Revolution.—During this exciting time, James's wife was delivered of a son, afterwards so famous as the Pretender. The nation refused to believe that the child was really hers; but this event hastened the plan of deliverance which had been formed. James had offended all parties in England. As we have seen, he had alienated the Tories and Churchmen; and the Dissenters never trusted him. His government in Ireland and Scotland was far more arbitrary and oppressive. Under these circumstances, an invitation, signed by seven

leading men of all parties, was sent to William of Orange, son-in-law of James, to come and deliver England. After a fortunate voyage, William landed with a considerable army at Torbay in November 1688. In a little time, all the leading men of the country joined him. James found himself deserted by his friends, and even by his own daughter Anne. 'God help me!' he exclaimed; 'my own children have forsaken me.' He fled to France, whither he had already sent his wife and child.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. James II. ascends the throne.....1685
2. The Duke of Monmouth is defeated at Sedgemoor.....1685
3. James offends the Tories by his attacks on the Church.
4. The seven Bishops are tried and acquitted.....1688
5. William of Orange lands and delivers the country.....1688

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who was James's first wife? To whom was his daughter Mary married? His second wife?
2. The result of Monmouth's insurrection? The Bloody Assizes?
3. What was the great aim of James's reign?
4. The Declaration of Indulgence? The trial of the seven bishops?
5. What event happened to hasten the deliverance of England? How was this deliverance accomplished?

CHAPTER VI.

WILLIAM AND MARY (1689—Mary died 1694; William, 1702).

1. **The New Government.**—Soon after the flight of James, a Convention Parliament was summoned to settle the government of the country (January 1689). William and Mary were invited to fill the vacant throne. At the same time a *Bill of Rights* was passed, which finally decided all the points so long in dispute between the parliament and the Stuart kings. It was settled clearly and beyond dispute that the sovereign must govern according to the laws; and that he has no power to raise money or keep a standing army in time of peace without the consent of parliament. The right of subjects to petition, freedom of election, and of debate in parliament, and the right to pure administration of justice, were solemnly affirmed. In the same

year, the Act of Toleration, by which religious freedom was granted to Protestant Dissenters, was passed.

2. War in Scotland and Ireland.—In England the new government was established without bloodshed, though James continued to have many adherents called *Jacobites*; and there were many clergymen called *non-jurors* who gave up their livings rather than take the oath to William and Mary. It was otherwise in Scotland and Ireland. In Scotland, Graham of Claverhouse, the notorious persecutor of the Covenanters, now Viscount of Dundee, raised a Highland army on the side of James, and completely routed William's forces under Mackay at the Pass of Killiecrankie (1689). But Dundee fell in the battle, and the Highlanders were helpless without their leader. In Ireland, there was a formidable rising of the natives against the English; and James himself crossed from France. But his army was baffled at the great siege of Londonderry, and next year completely overthrown by William at the battle of the Boyne (1690). After James had fled from Ireland, his forces were again beaten at Aghrim, and being besieged in Limerick, were forced to come to terms with the conquerors.

3. War with France.—It was the great task of William's life to humble the proud and ambitious Louis XIV., who was continually encroaching on his neighbours, and who was, moreover, a great persecutor of the Protestants. One of the main objects of his expedition to England was to draw her into a great league against Louis. England accordingly soon took part in the war. In 1692 a great invasion was averted by the overthrow of the French fleet in the great battle of Cape la Hogue. The chief seat, however, of the war was Flanders, where William every summer led the allied forces—English, Dutch, and Germans—against the French, and was not seldom defeated, though he succeeded in checking the conquests of Louis. Great sums of money were spent in this war, which the government raised by borrowing, and paying interest on the loan. This was the beginning of our *national debt*. In this connection the Bank of England was founded by Charles Montague on the plan of a Scotchman named Paterson. The same year Queen Mary died. In honour of the queen, and by her wish, the palace of Greenwich was completed and turned into a hospital for old and disabled seamen of the Royal Navy. The war with France was concluded by the peace of Ryswick (1697).

4. Death of William.—William was not popular in England;

he respected the laws, but his manners were cold and stiff, and his chief favourites were Dutchmen. After the war, it was a great mortification to him that the parliament insisted on the disbanding of a great part of the army, which he wished to retain, as he was still suspicious of Louis, and was anxious about the Spanish succession. In 1700, the king of Spain died childless, leaving his vast dominions to Philip of Anjou, a grandson of Louis XIV. William dreaded such an increase of power to France; but England took no great interest in the question till a false step of Louis roused all the old animosity against the French. In 1701, James II. died, and Louis publicly recognised his son the 'Pretender' as king of England. The nation was now furious for war. William saw the time was come, and in spite of ill health made preparations for a grand alliance against France. But he did not live to see the success of his plans. A fall from his horse, which stumbled over a mole-hill while he was riding near Hampton Court, caused his death in 1702. In 1701 an Act of Settlement had been passed, by which the crown on the death of Anne was to descend to the family of the Electress Sophia of Hanover, granddaughter of James I.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. William and Mary ascend the throne.....	1689
The Bill of Rights becomes law.....	1689
2. Dundee gains the battle of Killiecrankie, but is slain.....	1689
William gains the battle of the Boyne.....	1690
3. The French are beaten at Cape la Hogue.....	1692
Bank of England is founded; Queen Mary dies.....	1694
Peace of Ryswick is concluded.....	1697
4. King William dies.....	1702

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who now ascended the throne? The Bill of Rights?
2. Who were dissatisfied with the Revolution? In what countries did it lead to war? Killiecrankie? The Boyne?
3. The war with France? The National Debt? The Bank of England? Greenwich Hospital?
4. Why was William unpopular in England? Explain the question of the Spanish succession. What caused a new war?

CHAPTER VII.

QUEEN ANNE (1702-1714).

1. *Anne*.—As William and Mary had no children, Anne, daughter of James II. and sister of Mary, now ascended the throne. Anne was married to Prince George of Denmark, a man of nobility, who never had any influence in the country. Their children, of whom they had many, died early.

2. *Marlborough*.—Anne was wholly under the influence of her friend Sarah, wife of the renowned John Churchill, better known as the Duke of Marlborough. The two ladies lived on the most affectionate terms; in their correspondence the queen went by the name of Mrs Morley, and the duchess was Mrs Freeman. While the duchess ruled the queen, the duchess herself acted in the interest of her husband, who was made captain-general of the English army, and soon gained the reputation of being the greatest general and most skilful statesman of the time. It is said of him that he never besieged a city which he did not take, nor fought a battle which he did not win.

3. *War of the Spanish Succession*.—The great feature of this reign was the war of the Spanish succession. As the name indicates, this war was waged in order to decide who should be king of Spain. Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV., was indeed already king; but England, Holland, and the German emperor formed a grand alliance on behalf of the other claimant, the Archduke Charles, son of the emperor. The war which ensued lasted eleven years; bloody battles were fought in every country of Western Europe. It was the first great continental war in which we had been engaged for centuries. Though our armies greatly distinguished themselves, we had little interest in the struggle, and derived little solid advantage from it. After some less important fighting, Marlborough marched into Bavaria in 1704, and along with the imperial commander, Prince Eugene, completely defeated the French and Bavarians in the great battle of Blenheim. The French were driven out of Germany. In 1706, he gained another decisive victory at Ramillies, by which he cleared the French out of Flanders. In 1708, the French were overthrown at Oudenarde, and flung back upon

their own frontiers. By this time, France being completely exhausted, Louis sued for peace on the most disadvantageous terms; but the allies refused it, and another great battle was fought at Malplaquet (1709), in which the French were beaten, but inflicted on their opponents a loss twice as great as their own. Meanwhile, a great war was going on in Spain. The same year as Blenheim, the great fortress of Gibraltar was taken by an English expedition. The Earl of Peterborough took Barcelona, and astonished Europe by his romantic exploits. The allies entered Madrid, and all Spain seemed ready to submit to the Archduke Charles, when the tide turned. The great defeat of the English and Portuguese at the battle of Almanza by the Duke of Berwick, a natural son of James II., secured the throne of Philip of Anjou.

4. **Union with Scotland.**—Wise statesmen had long seen that the union of England and Scotland was necessary to the welfare of both countries. At this period they had fierce disputes as to their commercial rights, and the quarrel waxed so hot that it seemed as if the fighting days of Flodden and Bannockburn would return. The Scots resolved to have a different sovereign from England at the death of Anne. In these circumstances, prudent statesmen saw that the only way to avoid war was to bring about a union of the two countries, which was now accomplished on fair and equal terms (1707). The Scotch retained their own law and their own church; they enjoyed equal commercial privileges with England; they paid equal taxes; they sent representatives to Parliament; and they agreed that the House of Hanover should succeed to the throne. The union proved a happy event; but the great part of the Scottish nation was bitterly opposed to it for a long time.

5. **The Tory Peace.**—The feeling between the two great political parties, the Whigs and Tories, was very violent during this reign, the extreme Tories being averse to the war. For a time, the popularity of Marlborough, and the influence of his duchess with the queen, overcame opposition. At length the queen grew tired of the overbearing conduct of the duchess, while the country was weary of bloody and expensive wars, and became convinced that Spain would not receive the Archduke Charles as its king. In 1710, an event occurred which revealed the feeling of the country. A Tory clergyman, Dr Sacheverel, was impeached for a sermon he had preached, in which he condemned the principles of the Revolution, attacked the Dissenters,

and advocated the doctrine of passive obedience. Sacheverel was condemned, but the sentence was so light that it was regarded as a Tory triumph, while the mass of the people made the most enthusiastic rejoicings. Meanwhile, the queen fell under the influence of a new favourite, Mrs Masham, who took the Tory side. The Tories came into power in 1710. Marlborough was disgraced and deprived of his high offices. The war was concluded by the peace of Utrecht (1713). The son of Louis remained king of Spain. The English kept Gibraltar and Minorca. France gave up to them Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, and engaged to abandon the cause of the Pretender.

6. **The Death of Anne.**—The queen had long been in precarious health. This was also the more serious as the succession was likely to be disputed. The Act of Settlement of 1701 had decided in favour of the House of Hanover, but there was a strong party favourable to the Pretender. Bolingbroke, chief minister of Anne, was of this party, and intended to take active measures when he was surprised by the sudden death of the queen (1714).

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. Anne ascends the throne.....	1702
2. Marlborough is leading man during this reign.	
3. War of the Spanish Succession begins.....	1702
The French are overthrown at Blenheim.....	1704
Gibraltar is taken by the English.....	1704
The French are defeated at Ramillies.....	1706
4. The English and Scottish nations are united.....	1707
5. The Tories come to power.....	1710
The peace of Utrecht is concluded.....	1713
6. Queen Anne dies.....	1714

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who succeeded William on the throne? Her husband's name?
2. What lady ruled Queen Anne? Marlborough?
3. The war of the Spanish succession? What nations were engaged in it? What successes did England gain during the war?
4. What happy event took place at home?
5. What do we hear of political parties during this reign?
6. What great question awaited the country at Anne's death?

CHAPTER VIII.

SOCIAL CONDITION UNDER THE STUARTS.

1. **Population.**—During the seventeenth century, England made great progress in wealth and civilisation; but it was still very different from the England of our day. For example, the population at the end of the century numbered only about five millions and a half, or not a fourth of what it is now. In this respect the greatest change is visible in the north of England. Under the Stuarts, great part of the north of England was scarcely civilised; freebooters abounded, especially on the Borders, and life and property were insecure. The great industries in coal and iron, which have since made it so populous and wealthy, had scarcely begun.

2. **Large Towns.**—Then, as now, the largest city by far was London, which, at the end of the seventeenth century, had a population of half a million. Next to it Bristol was the chief seaport, and Norwich the chief manufacturing town; but neither had quite 30,000 inhabitants. York, with a little over 10,000 inhabitants, was the most important town of the north; Exeter, the principal town of the west, had about the same number. The great industrial centres north of the Trent, which now swarm with an ingenious and energetic population, were little larger than villages. Manchester already manufactured a little cotton; but her population was only about 6000. Liverpool did an important trade for the time; but she had only 200 seamen, and a population of 4000.

3. **London.**—In the seventeenth century London was almost a world apart. The railway, the telegraph, and the post-office now connect it most intimately with the rest of the kingdom, communication being both sure and rapid. But under the Stuarts it was still a serious and even perilous journey from the distant provinces to the metropolis. There was little intercourse, and the manners and social condition of London differed widely from those of the country. In London the fashionable world gathered round the Court, while the powerful commercial interest had its centre in the city. The latter was generally Puritan, was often opposed to the Royal party, and took the Puritan side during the civil wars. The sanitary condition of

London was still deplorable, the streets being covered with mud and litter, and the gutters being deluged with filth. Bands of thieves, and of gentlemen behaving like savages, infested the streets at night, making it unsafe for quiet citizens to stir abroad. It was considered a marvellous improvement when one Edward Hemming, in 1685, undertook to light the streets. This improvement consisted in posting a lantern before every tenth door on moonless nights. The shop-fronts were still distinguished by curious figures which served as signs; they were not marked with their number and the name of the occupier as at present. This was necessary among a people so few of whom were able to read.

4. *Coffee-houses.*—Tea and coffee were both introduced into England in the middle of the seventeenth century. Coffee was the first to become a favourite drink; it was in general esteem in the reign of Charles II. Tea did not become popular till the time of Queen Anne. The coffee-houses of London soon grew into great national institutions. The daily newspaper did not make its appearance at breakfast every morning in those days, and it was extremely difficult to get information about public events. So men made a habit of meeting in the coffee-houses, where they heard and discussed the news. Like the clubs of the present day, the various coffee-houses were distinguished by the class of men that frequented them. Many were political, and of these some were exclusively Whig, some Tory. Others, especially Wills's in Covent Garden, were chiefly literary. In most of them smoking was a prevalent habit.

5. *Rural Life.*—While such novelties prevailed in the busy and fashionable world of London, rural England held on its old way. The games and merry-makings, once so popular, and which were suppressed by the Puritans, were revived under Charles II. In the country we find three remarkable classes of men. First, there were the rural clergy, so different from the learned and eloquent clergy of London. They were poor, unlearned, low in social position, and hostile to Dissenters, yet powerful as a class, and enthusiastically devoted to the established order of things in Church and State. Closely allied in feeling to this rural clergy were the country squires, who lived on their own estates and seldom went to London, who hated the Dissenters and the French, and stood by the king and the church; an unrefined and prejudiced but patriotic class of men. Very different from these were the yeomanry, a class

of men which has almost wholly disappeared, but who at the end of the seventeenth century formed, it is believed, about a seventh of the entire population of the country. The yeomen possessed small estates of sixty or seventy pounds a year, which they cultivated with their own hands. They were an eminently sturdy and independent class of men, attached to Puritanism, who supported the Parliament during the civil war, and were afterwards friends of Dissent and of the Whig party.

6. **Travelling.**—Travelling was somewhat improved by the end of the seventeenth century, though the roads were still in a frightful condition. Coaches ran between the principal towns and the metropolis; but travelling was slow, uncomfortable, and even dangerous. It was thought a great and daring feat, when the Flying Coach first (1669) made the journey from Oxford to London in a single day. In winter it took nearly a week to travel from London to York or Chester. On the whole, Englishmen were still very much rooted to the soil; it was only the wealthy and powerful who could travel with tolerable comfort and security. A coach and four or six, which, at the present day, serves only for state pageantry or fashionable display, was a necessity on miserable roads, where a carriage was always sticking fast in the mud.

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is known of the population of England at this time?
2. The population of London? The two towns next to it?
3. The state of London at this period?
4. What well-known beverages were introduced at this period?
5. Name the three remarkable classes in the country.
6. What great improvement in travelling had been introduced?

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

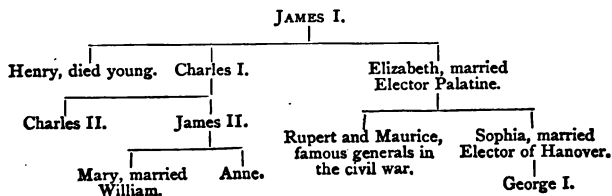
CHAPTER I.

GEORGE I. (1714-1727).*

1. **George I.**—George, Elector of Hanover, was proclaimed king in London without the slightest opposition. Before her death the late queen had given the staff of Lord Treasurer to the Duke of Shrewsbury. The Duke was a Tory, but he was also a decided adherent of the family of Hanover. Along with the Duke of Argyll and some of the leading Whigs, he took such prudent and energetic measures that the Jacobites, or adherents of James the Pretender, did not stir, and everything passed off quietly. By this time the majority of the nation, as also the wisest and most enlightened part, were convinced that there was no hope of good government from the Stuart kings. Yet the new king made no great haste to take possession of his crown; he allowed six weeks to pass before his arrival in London. When he did come, his appearance was not found to be prepossessing; he could not speak English; and he was dull, heavy, and awkward. But he was upright and benevolent; and though he never had the feelings of an Englishman, he governed according to the laws and the wishes of the country.

2. **The Jacobites.**—With the accession of the House of Hanover the Whigs returned to power, which they retained for more

* *Family Tree, shewing the relation of the Hanoverian to the Stuart Family.*



than fifty years. In the new parliament they had an overwhelming majority. Many of the Tory leaders were suspected of favouring the Pretender : some of them, such as Bolingbroke, were in correspondence with him. Accordingly, the late ministers, Bolingbroke, Ormond, and Oxford, were impeached for misconduct when in power, and for intriguing with the Pretender. Bolingbroke and Ormond escaped to France, while the Earl of Oxford was sent to the Tower, where he was confined for two years and then acquitted. Jacobite disturbances took place in various parts of England ; but it was only in the northern counties and in Scotland that the followers of James offered any real resistance to the new government.

3. *Rising of '15.*—In September 1715, the Earl of Mar raised the standard of the Pretender at Braemar, and was soon joined by a considerable array of Highland clansmen. He marched to Perth, where he soon commanded most of the country north of the Forth. A rising of the same kind was expected in England ; but only a few north-country gentlemen, under Mr Forster and the Earl of Derwentwater, declared for James. Being joined on the Borders by Lord Kenmure and the Earl of Nithsdale, and by a Highland detachment from Mar's army, they advanced into Lancashire. There at Preston they were attacked by the royal forces, and forced to surrender. On the same day the Earl of Mar fought the indecisive battle of Sheriffmuir against the royal forces under Argyll. After the battle Mar withdrew to Perth. He had delayed too long, and so missed the opportunity of striking a decisive blow. The arrival of the Pretender himself from France did not improve affairs. After a short stay in Scotland he saw that his cause was hopeless, and returned to France, accompanied by Mar, whose Highland army dispersed to the hills. Of the captive leaders of the insurrection, many escaped by flight ; the Earl of Derwentwater and Lord Kenmure were executed. About thirty others of inferior rank suffered death, and a thousand of the common soldiers were transported to America. Owing to the excited state of the country after the insurrection, the parliament thought it imprudent to dissolve at the fixed time, and therefore passed a law called the Septennial Act, by which the duration of parliament was extended to seven years.

4. *The South Sea Scheme.*—In 1720, England went mad over the South Sea Scheme. The South Sea Company enjoyed the monopoly of the trade with South America. One great object of

the company, had always been to lighten the burden of the national debt by advancing money to the government at a reduced interest. In 1720, an arrangement of the same kind was made on a far larger scale, the effect of which was that the South Sea Company became the chief creditor of government, being content with five per cent. interest. To carry out this scheme, the South Sea Company required to raise money, and with this view the most fabulous accounts were spread abroad of the splendid prospects of the company. So eager was everybody to participate in its prosperity that its £100 shares soon sold for £1000. Courtiers, statesmen, and nobles, even the Prince of Wales, speculated in the stocks. The wildest projects for the quick and easy making of money were started. London was in a fearful state of excitement. At last people began to distrust such mad schemes; a panic arose; and the bubble companies burst, leaving a few enriched, and thousands in ruin. Many of the leading statesmen were involved in the catastrophe; and Robert Walpole, the best financier of the time, was called upon to put himself at the head of the government, and to devise measures for relieving the distress. He continued in power twenty-one years (1721-1742), steadily pursuing a peace policy furthering the commercial prosperity of the country, and seeking financial reform.

5. Death of George I.—During this reign the Jacobites did not give up hope of seeing the restoration of the Stuart kings. One so high in character and station as Francis Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, was found guilty of plotting in their favour. He was deprived of his high offices, and banished from the kingdom. Under the quiet administration of Walpole nothing of importance now occurred till the death of King George I., which took place during a visit to Hanover (1727).

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. George, Elector of Hanover, ascends the throne.....1714
2. The Whigs return to power.
3. The Earl of Mar rises in favour of James the Pretender.....1715
The Battle of Sheriffmuir is fought between Mar and Argyll.
4. The South Sea Scheme ruins thousands of people.....1720
Robert Walpole becomes prime minister.....1721
5. King George I. dies.....1727

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who was now proclaimed king? His character?
2. What great party now succeeded to power? What leading men were accused of favouring the Pretender?
3. Who raised the Jacobite rebellion in Scotland? Who in England? What happened at Preston? At Sheriffmuir? What important Act was passed about this time?
4. What was the South Sea Company? What became of it?
5. What happened to Atterbury? Walpole's administration?

CHAPTER II.

GEORGE II. (1727-1760).

1. **George II.**—The new king was forty-four years of age when he ascended the throne. He had the advantage over his father of being able to speak English fluently. Like him he was brave and straightforward, but somewhat narrow in intellect. He had the good sense to be guided by his wife, the celebrated Queen Caroline, a lady of high character, very clever, and a great friend of men of learning. She was also the friend of Robert Walpole, who continued to be the chief minister. Walpole was very skilful in finance; he introduced a better system of taxation, and did all he could to promote the commercial prosperity of the country. But this he accomplished most effectually by steadily pursuing a peace policy. He had two great faults; he made it a practice to bribe the members of the House of Commons in order to induce them to vote with him; and he was so fond of power and of keeping it all to himself, that he drove all the able and all the rising men into opposition. The members of this opposition used to call themselves the 'patriots,' while Walpole contemptuously spoke of them as the 'boys.'

2. **The Excise Bill.**—Party spirit ran fearfully high during this reign. In 1733 Walpole brought forward an Excise Bill, the object of which was to prevent fraud and smuggling by a stricter method of collecting the duties on wine and tobacco. Simple as this was, the 'patriots' roused such a storm of opposition that Walpole was glad to withdraw the bill in order to avert a civil war.

3. **War with Spain.**—Under the treaty of Utrecht we were

permitted, besides the negro slave-trade, to trade with the Spanish colonies of America only in a single ship. In spite of this, the English managed to carry on a large traffic with South America; and when the Spanish government took severe means to put it down, the whole country was furious and demanded war. Walpole's power was not so great as it had been. His friend the queen died in 1737; the Prince of Wales joined the opposition; all the able men were among the patriots. Under these circumstances Walpole gave an unwilling consent to war (1739). 'They may ring the bells now,' he exclaimed; 'but they will soon be wringing their hands.' A British fleet under Admiral Vernon soon took Porto Bello (in South America); but a great expedition which went out and attacked Carthage was completely defeated. Another fleet under Commodore Anson, which was despatched into the Pacific to harass the coasts of Chili and Peru, suffered fearful hardships in sailing round Cape Horn. After doing considerable damage to the Spaniards, and taking a great quantity of treasure, Anson returned round the world with only one ship.

4. **War of the Austrian Succession (1740-48).**—Meanwhile a war of far greater magnitude had broken out in Europe. The Emperor Charles died in 1740, bequeathing his vast dominions to his daughter, the celebrated Maria Theresa. Though all the neighbouring states had solemnly guaranteed the will of the emperor, they now welcomed the accession of a defenceless female sovereign as a splendid opportunity for enlarging their own territories. France, Prussia, and Bavaria at once pounced upon such provinces of the empire as suited them. George, concerned for the safety of Hanover, resolved to stand by Maria Theresa. Accordingly, a large force of English and Hanoverians marched against the French. George joined it in person, and at Dettingen on the Maine defeated the French army—the last occasion on which an English sovereign has been present on a battle-field. The war was continued in Flanders between France and England. In 1745 the French under Marshal Saxe gained the great battle of Fontenoy, notwithstanding the heroic bravery of the English and Hanoverian infantry. Shortly after the battle the whole of Flanders was overrun by the French. As to Maria Theresa, her armies soon drove the invaders out of her territories.

5. **Jacobite Rising of '45.**—While England was at war with both France and Spain, it was thought a good opportunity for

attempting the restoration of the Stuarts. Prince Charles Edward, son of the old Pretender James, a young man of twenty-four, now took up the cause of his exiled fathers. A great French expedition which was fitted out at Dunkirk was so terribly shattered by a storm that it had to be given up. Still Charles was not discouraged; with only seven followers he landed in the West Highlands in 1745. The advice of his most zealous friends among the northern chieftains was against a rising at such a time, though they were as loyal to the Stuart cause as ever. But their hesitation was overcome; with a force which increased as he went on, he advanced to Perth, and entered Edinburgh without opposition. Then after beating a royal force under John Cope at Prestonpans, he pushed boldly forward into England as far as Derby. But the English Jacobites did not join him except in very scanty numbers, and the royal armies were gathering round him. Though London was alarmed at the approach of the Highlanders, his little force of five thousand men was evidently unequal to the task before it, and he reluctantly retreated. At Falkirk he inflicted another defeat on the royal forces under Hawley before he retired to the hills. Here he was cooped up by the royal forces under the Duke of Cumberland, until the bloody overthrow of Culloden scattered all his hopes. The insurgent districts were ravaged with fearful cruelty by order of the duke, who henceforward got the name of the 'Butcher.' After many wanderings and narrow escapes, Charles got out of the country through the devotion of his Highland friends; but many of the leaders of this last Jacobite rising of '45 were captured and sent to the scaffold. Measures were also taken to prevent insurrection in future; the power of the chiefs over their clans was broken; roads were made to traverse the country; forts were built; the wearing of the national garb was forbidden.

6. Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748).—Meanwhile the war in Flanders continued to the disadvantage of the English and their allies. Wearied at last on both sides, the combatants concluded the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which left affairs very much as they were before the war, and in which nothing was said as to the question of trade with South America, the original cause of quarrel between England and Spain.

7. America.—The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was followed by a period of great quietness at home; but in America and India hostilities hardly ceased. The matter in dispute was of the very

highest importance. It was to be decided whether England or France should rule in those immense regions ; it was a turning-point in the history of England and of the world, and therefore should be very clearly understood. Looking first at America, we find that our colonies had grown marvellously, both in wealth and population, since the time when the settlement of Virginia was planted, and the Pilgrim Fathers landed at Plymouth Rock in the reign of James I. Then they were only a few hundreds altogether, and could not raise corn enough to keep themselves from starving. By this time they numbered nearly a million and a half of souls ; they occupied the entire sea-board of the Atlantic from Nova Scotia to Georgia ; and they exported immense quantities of produce. But they found ardent rivals in the French who occupied Canada, and who having first traced the course of the Mississippi, claimed the whole basin of the river as their own. To make good their claim they erected a chain of forts which connected the St Lawrence with the Mississippi and cut off the Anglo-Saxon colonists from all the vast and fertile regions of the Far West. What made this claim the more astonishing was that the French colonists did not number above eighty thousand in all. But they had an excellent army ; the Indians were generally their friends, and so they gave our colonists a great deal of trouble.

8. *India.*—In India we had three trading settlements at Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. The French had a settlement of the same kind at Pondicherry, the governor of which was an ambitious adventurer named Dupleix. This man had conceived the plan of founding a great French empire in India, for there was no strong or settled government there, and he thought it would be easy to subdue the native states and drive out the English. But all his plans of conquest were defeated by a young English clerk, Robert Clive, who soon after was destined to be the founder of an English empire in India.

9. *Seven Years' War ; Unfortunate Beginning.*—On the continent, France, Austria, and Russia formed a great league for the conquest of Prussia, and England made an alliance with Frederick the Great of Prussia for the defence of Hanover. In the war which ensued, England fought the French on the continent, on the ocean, in America, and India ; and everywhere, owing chiefly to the incapacity of the Duke of Newcastle, who was prime minister, we were unfortunate at the beginning of the war. The French conquered Minorca, while our fleet under

Admiral Byng, which was sent to relieve the island, drew off without risking a decisive battle with the fleet of France. Byng was tried and shot for his slackness on that occasion. Our attacks on the French forts in America were beaten off with great loss. In India, Fort William was taken by Surajah Dowlah, who shut up the English residents in a prison, called the 'Black Hole,' where almost all of them perished. In Germany the army of Hanover, under the Duke of Cumberland, was surrounded, and obliged to capitulate in the most disgraceful way.

10. **William Pitt.**—The whole of England was in despair. There was only one man that could save it, and that was the famous William Pitt, who had long been in the opposition, but who now at the call of the nation took the direction of our foreign policy. He infused into the administration his own daring spirit, and chose able men wherever he could find them. He set himself resolutely to work, and soon everything prospered. In America the French forts fell one after another; Louisberg, capital of Cape Breton, was besieged and taken; finally, Quebec was won (1759) by General Wolfe, and the whole of Canada conquered. Thus it was decided that North America should not be French but Anglo-Saxon. On the ocean the French were beaten wherever they appeared. In a stormy sea and on a rocky coast, Admiral Hawke attacked a French fleet in Quiberon Bay, and completely shattered it. Meanwhile, in the far East, Clive avenged the cruel deaths in the 'Black Hole,' and laid the foundation of our Indian empire by his great victory of Plassey (1757), gained over Surajah Dowlah. Effectual aid both in men and money was sent to Germany. By the great victory of Minden, in which the English took a distinguished part, the French were cleared out of Germany. In the midst of such successes King George died (1760).

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. George II. ascends the throne.....1727
Walpole continues to be prime minister.
2. The *Excise Bill* is thrown out1733
3. War begins against Spain.....1739
The British are defeated at Carthagena.
Anson sails round the world.
4. War of the Spanish Succession breaks out1740
The British are victorious at Dettingen.....1743
But are defeated at Fontenoy.....1745

5. Prince Charles, the young Pretender, lands in the Highlands.....	1743
He defeats Cope at Prestonpans, and marches into England.	
Returns to Scotland, and gains a victory at Falkirk	1746
Is overthrown at Culloden.....	1746
6. Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle is concluded.....	1748
7. In America the French quarrel with the English colonies.	
8. The French also quarrel with the English in India.	
9. The Seven Years' War against France breaks out.....	1756
The English are everywhere unsuccessful at first.	
10. William Pitt becomes chief minister.....	1757
Clive gains the great victory of Plassey.....	1757
Wolfe takes Quebec.....	1759
The English are victorious in Germany.	
King George II. dies.....	1760

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. The character of George II.? By whom was he guided? Who was prime minister during the early part of this reign? What was his policy? Who were the 'patriots'?
2. The object of the Excise Bill? Its fate?
3. Explain the cause of the war with Spain. The result of the expedition against Carthage? Describe Anson's voyage.
4. What great war now broke out in Europe? The cause of it? The battle of Dettingen? Fontenoy?
5. Who now took up the Stuart cause? What battles were fought? What measures were adopted to prevent a rising in future?
6. What success had the English forces in Flanders? The nature of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle?
7. What great struggle was impending in America? Explain the nature of the dispute.
8. What settlements did the English hold in India? What plan did Dupleix form? How was this plan baffled?
9. What great league was now formed on the continent? Who was England's ally? How did the war prosper at first?
10. Who was now called upon to deliver the country? What successes were gained in America? The great victory of Plassey? How did the war prosper in Germany?

CHAPTER III.

GEORGE III. (1760-1820).

1. **George III.**—George III., grandson of George II., now ascended the throne, his father having died Prince of Wales. The new king was only twenty-two years of age; he was honest, kindly, and in his private life free from reproach. Unlike his predecessors, he had the feelings of a born Englishman, and desired to rule like an English king. But he had been badly educated, and was wholly under the influence of his mother and a Scotch nobleman, the Earl of Bute. In this reign the Tories first renounced all hope of seeing the Stuarts restored, and began to rally round the king; while the Whig families, whom George hated and distrusted, gradually lost much of their great influence.

2. **Continuation of the War.**—The war with France was still triumphantly continued; and was soon extended by an alliance between France and Spain, called the 'Family Compact.' Suspecting the existence of such an alliance, Pitt urged an immediate declaration of war against Spain; but his advice was disregarded, and he resigned. On his resignation, the Londoners shewed their esteem of the 'Great Commoner' in the most enthusiastic way—hanging from his carriage wheels, hugging his footmen, and even kissing his horses. It was soon discovered too that he was right in regard to Spain; for shortly after, war broke out with that country, and his plans for conducting it were victoriously carried out by his successors in office. Most of the French West Indies were subdued; Havana and Manilla were immediately taken from Spain.

3. **Treaty of Paris.**—All this time the Earl of Bute was chief minister. He disliked greatly the men who preceded him in power, and was resolved to overturn all their plans. He disgracefully broke off the alliance with Frederick of Prussia, and sought to make peace without securing the due fruits of victory; still the French and Spaniards were so exhausted that they were easily brought to agree to terms, which were very favourable to England. The French gave up Canada and all the adjoining country, while the Spaniards restored Minorca and gave up Florida. Thus the war had three results of the very greatest

importance—(1) The English, or more properly the Anglo-Saxon race, became masters of North America. (2) The English empire in India was firmly established. (3) We were undisputed rulers of the sea.

4. Government of George III.—The first two Georges loved Hanover greatly; they concerned themselves little with the home affairs of England, leaving the management of them to the Whig ministers, such as Walpole. George III., however, resolved to be king in reality. In order to govern the country, the first thing was to have a majority in parliament; and the great means of securing a majority in parliament was to bribe the members, and to give lucrative offices to those who would vote as they were desired. This method had been too much followed by the Whig ministers, and was now adopted by the king. All the good places in the army, the navy, the church, and the civil service were reserved for the 'king's friends.' A great part of the royal revenue was employed to buy up seats and votes. In this way the king soon obtained very great influence in parliament, and we shall soon see in regard to America what a disastrous use he made of it. What made it all the easier to acquire such influence was that only one person out of fifty of the population had a vote at elections, and seats in parliament were regularly bought and sold. The House of Commons had ceased to represent the country. Some of the wisest statesmen, such as Pitt, saw the necessity of a reform.

5. Industrial Progress.—In the meantime, the country was rapidly advancing. Brindley made the great canal which joined Liverpool to Manchester. It was only the beginning of many such undertakings. The inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, and Crompton introduced wonderful changes in spinning and weaving. Greatest of all, James Watt made the steam-engine the useful instrument of man. Wedgwood made a revolution in pottery; and equal improvement was soon effected in agriculture. All this progress began about the beginning of the reign of George III. The wealth of the country marvellously increased.

6. John Wilkes.—At this period, John Wilkes became a very prominent person in the disputes of the House of Commons. He was a member of parliament, and a most profligate man; yet as he happened to be on the side of liberty, he won the greatest popularity. Having attacked the king in his paper called the *North Briton*, he was arrested and thrown into prison,

but released by the judges, because the arrest was illegal. But the House of Commons took up the case, and expelled him. He went to France; but, returning in 1768, he was four times elected by the county of Middlesex, and as often did the House of Commons refuse to receive him, finally giving the seat to a rival candidate who had not near so many votes. This contest raised the greatest excitement in the country, especially as the Commons shewed a wish to interfere with the right of election.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. George III. ascends the throne.....1760
2. War with France continues, and war with Spain begins.
3. The Treaty of Paris is concluded with France and Spain.....1763
4. The king intermeddles with parliament.
5. Many important inventions are made; the steam-engine is improved by Watt.
6. John Wilkes, elected member for Middlesex, is rejected by the Commons.....1768

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. Who succeeded George II., and how old was the new king? His character? What change took place with regard to the Tories?
2. What was the success of the war with France? How was the war extended? The resignation of Pitt?
3. Who was prime minister after Pitt? The treaty of Paris? Name the important consequences of the Seven Years' War.
4. How did George III. differ from the first two Georges? What means did he take to secure a majority in parliament?
5. How was the country progressing at this time? Name some of the most remarkable inventors.
6. What name is very distinguished in the parliamentary history of this period? His character?

CHAPTER IV.

SEPARATION OF THE AMERICAN COLONIES.

1. **The Colonies.**—The great event of the early half of the reign of George III. was the loss of most of our American colonies. With the wise and industrious habits which they had brought with them from England, and living in a vast and fertile

country, those colonists were grown great and prosperous. As their commerce was regulated entirely to suit the interest of the mother country, the most friendly feeling did not always exist between them and the government of England. By the conquest of Canada they were also delivered from the fear of the French, and were therefore the less likely to bear patiently any unjust treatment, though they were exceedingly loyal.

2. Causes of Revolt.—Shortly after the late war, the home government affirmed its right to tax the American colonies, and proceeded to pass the celebrated Stamp Act (1765). The colonies were indignant. They maintained that an assembly in which they were not represented had no right to tax them; that taxation and representation always went together. The Stamp Act was soon repealed, owing chiefly to the warning advice of Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, who was always strongly opposed to taxing the colonies. But after a time other taxes were imposed; and finally a duty was charged on tea, on which the British government insisted. This duty was a mere trifle; but the colonists were against all such taxation on principle. King George, on the other hand, was firm and even obstinate. He was sorry for yielding to the repeal of the Stamp Act, and thought he could easily break the spirit of three million free-born men on the other side of the Atlantic. Moreover, he found a minister to his mind in Lord North, a good-natured man, who always did what the king wished, and continued to be prime minister for about twelve years. On their part, the colonists still opposed the tax on tea, and even refused to make use of imported goods until it was removed; while the English government began to place troops in Boston, and to shew that they meant to put down resistance by force. Nothing serious occurred, however, till 1773, when a band of Americans, disguised as Mohawk Indians, boarded some vessels laden with tea, which lay in Boston Harbour, and threw their cargo into the sea. To punish the people of Boston, the English government now shut up the port of that town, and suspended the charter of the colony of Massachusetts.

3. Outbreak of the War.—This last act of the English home government was fatal, especially as it was only one of many, by which they shewed how little they respected the right and feelings of a great people. In 1774, a great *Congress* of twelve American colonies was held; Georgia was absent, but joined the others soon after; Canada, being still wholly French in character

did not share in the feelings of the English-speaking colonies. In 1775, the first blood in this unhappy struggle was shed at Lexington near Boston. General Gage, the English commander at Boston, sent a body of soldiers to seize some arms which were collected at Concord. They succeeded in doing so; but on their return were severely harassed by the colonial riflemen, losing many men in killed and wounded. The Americans now assembled in arms, and besieged General Gage in Boston. Though beaten in the battle of Bunker Hill, they held their ground outside the town, and were soon joined by the celebrated George Washington, who had been appointed commander-in-chief of the colonial forces. After some time, General Howe, now commander of the British army, found it advisable to evacuate Boston and retire to Halifax. Meantime the Americans invaded Canada, but there they were completely defeated.

4. *Progress of the War.*—Encouraged by their success at Boston, the thirteen united colonies of America issued their famous 'Declaration of Independence' (4th July 1776). The same year an English army of 30,000 men, under General Howe, landed near New York, where they expected to find many colonists still loyal to the king. Howe defeated Washington at Brooklyn, and took the city of New York. Next year he again defeated Washington in the battle of Brandywine, and occupied Philadelphia. But a great reverse befel the English at Saratoga, where an army, while advancing from Canada under General Burgoyne, was surrounded by a far superior force, and compelled to surrender (1777). After this disaster, France made an alliance with the colonies (1778), and Spain speedily followed the example. The French and Spanish fleets rode in the English Channel unchallenged. Meanwhile the war in America was transferred to the more southern colonies, where the English took Charleston, and recovered Georgia and South Carolina. But here too the American General Greene gained the upper hand. The end came at Yorktown (1781), where the English army under Cornwallis, being cooped up by Washington on land, while a French fleet commanded the sea, was compelled to surrender. After this all hope of vanquishing the colonies had vanished. Ere this, in 1778, the great Chatham fell, a dying man, in the House of Lords, when solemnly protesting against the weak policy of the ministers.

5. *War on the Sea and in India.*—British efforts flagged in America, because we had a host of enemies to contend against

in every part of the world. Minorca was taken by the French and Spaniards, and Gibraltar had a three years' siege to sustain. The Dutch too joined our enemies, and fought our fleet in a stubborn and indecisive battle off Dogger-bank. India was in extreme danger. Russia and the northern powers joined in what is called the 'Armed Neutrality,' to compel us to give up certain rights which we exercised at sea. Even the Irish parliament seized the opportunity to claim its freedom. But a splendid victory gained in the West Indies by Admiral Rodney over the French fleet restored our supremacy at sea. The great armaments of France and Spain, so long engaged in the siege of Gibraltar, utterly failed against the heroic defence of General Eliott. If we did not lose ground in India, it was owing to the genius and energy of Warren Hastings, now governor-general. He had a great war with the Mahrattas; but after some successes was obliged to make peace with them, in order to resist the great potentate Hyder Ali, sultan of Mysore, who meant to drive the English out of India. Notwithstanding the assistance of the French, Hyder Ali was finally overthrown. At the peace of Versailles (1783), the independence of the American colonies was acknowledged; but the only other important loss was Minorca, which was retained by Spain.

6. **William Pitt.**—Shortly after the conclusion of peace, William Pitt, son of the equally famous Earl of Chatham, became prime minister at the age of twenty-four. He had the confidence of the king, and soon gained the confidence of the nation, being an able and a liberal-minded statesman. All his early measures were decidedly liberal and enlightened. Two of his wisest measures failed—a Reform Bill, and a bill to secure free trade for Ireland. But he succeeded in amending the government of India, he greatly reformed the finance, and he made the first great commercial treaty with France. He virtually ruled England till his death in 1806.

7. **Trial of Warren Hastings.**—On his return to England, the celebrated Warren Hastings was accused of misgovernment in India. Burke, Fox, and Sheridan exerted all their eloquence against him; and even Pitt was convinced that Hastings had abused his great power. The trial before the House of Lords was the occasion of a great display of eloquence by his accusers, as well as of a great deal of fashionable excitement. Sentence was not pronounced till 1795, when Hastings was acquitted in consideration of his great services. The same year as the trial

(1788), the king was for some time deranged in mind. While parties were disputing about the appointment of a regent, His Majesty recovered.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. The English colonies in America had prospered greatly.
2. The English government passes the Stamp Act.....1765
A tax on tea is imposed.....1769
Cargoes of tea are thrown overboard in Boston Harbour.....1773
3. The first Congress of the American colonies is held.....1774
War breaks out at Lexington; battle of Bunker Hill.....1775
4. The American colonies declare their independence.....1776
Howe defeats Washington and takes New York.....1776
General Burgoyne surrenders at Saratoga.....1777
France gives help to the colonies.
Cornwallis surrenders at Yorktown.....1781
5. England stands alone against a host of enemies.
Gibraltar is besieged in vain; India is saved by Hastings;
Admiral Rodney gains a great victory in the West Indies.
Peace is concluded at Versailles.....1783
6. The younger Pitt becomes prime minister at twenty-four.
7. Warren Hastings is tried for misgovernment in India.....1788

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What was the great event of the early part of the reign of George III? How had the colonies prospered?
2. What was the Stamp Act? What duty was imposed instead? The conduct of George III? What happened in Boston Harbour?
3. What great meeting was now held in America? Where was the first blood shed? Where were the British forces besieged? What battle was fought? The American commander?
4. What was the Declaration of Independence? What successes were gained by Howe? What disasters were soon after sustained?
5. Explain the great difficulties in which England was now placed. How did we regain our supremacy at sea? The siege of Gibraltar? How did Warren Hastings save the English empire in India? The peace of Versailles?
6. What celebrated man became prime minister soon after the war?
7. What great trial now took place? What now befel the king?

CHAPTER V.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1. *French Revolution.*—In 1789 began the greatest event of modern history, the French Revolution. The revolution in France was a great rising of the common people against the higher or privileged classes, against the king, the nobles, and the clergy. The mass of the people had no part in the government of the country; their interests were never consulted; they were ill-fed, ill-clad, uneducated, and neglected, bearing all the burdens and enjoying none of the benefits of government. The privileged classes, on the other hand, paid no taxes; they drew their rents, filled all the well-paid offices, and amused themselves at Paris. For many years everything had been going fearfully wrong; the public debt was increasing enormously, even in time of peace; national bankruptcy and utter ruin were threatening. All thinking men saw the danger, and felt that a radical cure was necessary. At last the government fell into the hands of daring men, who resolved to overturn all the old institutions of France, and to be free. In a short time they succeeded. The nobles were driven from their estates; the priests were expelled from their churches; the king and the royal family were cast into prison. In a year or two the old France had disappeared for ever.

2. *What England thought of the French Revolution.*—All these startling changes excited the keenest attention in every country of Europe, especially in England. For the French were wonderfully clever at that time, and other nations were eager to know everything the French said and did. Knowing how wretched had been the government of France, all wise men at first thought the revolution a great blessing. But as time went on, and the revolution grew in violence, many began to doubt, and even to deplore it as a great calamity. While Fox loved the revolution, and Pitt for a long time saw no reason why it should interrupt the peace between England and France, the great orator Burke vehemently denounced it. Most men ere long began to think that Burke was right.

3. **War breaks out.**—Soon the European kings began to hate and fear the revolution, dreading lest it should grow strong in their own countries. The exiled French nobles called upon them to put it down. So a German army invaded France, thinking it would be an easy task to restore the old government; but it was defeated and driven back. About the same time, fearful massacres took place in Paris, and soon the king, Louis XVI., was tried and put to death. After this, the feeling in England was decidedly hostile to the revolution. Pitt, for his part, was thinking how he might prevent Russia from partitioning Poland and invading Turkey, and was strongly averse to war with France. But he had to yield to the feeling of the country, and war was declared in 1793. Little did they think that it would last for twenty-two years, and send millions of brave men to an early grave.

4. **The French Republic Victorious.**—Republican France was now surrounded by enemies within and without, but she was more than a match for them all. The armies of England, Prussia, and Austria were hurled back from her northern frontier, and then driven out of Belgium. In midwinter 1795 the French overran Holland; a French cavalry regiment galloped over the ice, and captured the Dutch fleet lying in the Texel! Meanwhile, all the revolts against the Republic which took place in the interior of France were cruelly suppressed. Toulon, which had been occupied by the English, was taken by a young Frenchman, Napoleon Bonaparte. In 1795, Prussia and Spain withdrew from the war, leaving England and Austria to fight it out.

5. **The English Fleet.**—Though defeated in the Netherlands, the English maintained their old supremacy at sea. In the battle of the 1st of June 1794, Admiral Howe completely defeated the French fleet off Brest. After overcoming their continental enemies, the French wished to join the fleets of Spain and Holland to their own, and invade Ireland. The great victory of Admiral Jervis at Cape St Vincent over the fleet of Spain averted this. The year 1797 was a serious one in English history. While the country was in danger of invasion, mutinies occurred in two of the fleets. The sailors had very much to complain of—low pay, bad provisions, and the brutal treatment of the officers. The first mutiny, at Spithead, was marked by a moderate spirit, and was soon appeased, the

demands of the sailors being granted. In the mutiny at the Nore, some of the sailors were more violent; they proceeded even to blockade the Thames; but most soon yielded, and the ringleaders were hanged. The fleet then stood out to sea, and in the hard-won victory of Camperdown it proved both its loyalty and its courage. In the same year there was great financial distress; the Bank of England suspended cash-payments.

6. *Ireland*.—At this period the state of Ireland was extremely critical. A great secret society, called the 'United Irishmen,' consisting of Protestants as well as Catholics, was ready for revolt. The French Republic was invited to give help, and even sent a great expedition from Brest, which was scattered by a storm. At last the Irish rose in arms, but it was only in the county of Wexford that they assembled in considerable numbers, and here at Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy, they were routed by General Lake (1798). This revolt shewed the necessity of a union between England and Ireland, which was now accomplished, but only after a vast amount of bribery. The Irish sent members to parliament, and free trade was established between the two countries. From the 1st of January 1801, Ireland ceased to be a separate country.

7. *Napoleon Bonaparte*.—By this time Napoleon Bonaparte had risen to be the first man in the French Republic. Thinking that an invasion of England was too hazardous an enterprise, he set out for Egypt with a large fleet and a powerful army, taking Malta on the way. Once firmly seated in Egypt, he meant to strike at our possessions in India, and build up a great empire in the East. He soon occupied Egypt, but his fleet was annihilated by the renowned Nelson in the Bay of Aboukir (Battle of the Nile, 1798); and he was baffled at the siege of Acre by Sir Sidney Smith; whilst in India itself Tippoo Sahib, the warlike sultan of Mysore, was slain, and his dominions annexed by the English. At the same time disasters which befel the French armies in Europe, compelled Napoleon to return home, when he was made First Consul of the French Republic, and overthrew the Austrians at Marengo. In 1801, Nelson bombarded Copenhagen; and Sir Ralph Abercromby, landing in Egypt, defeated the French army there, and compelled it to evacuate the country. Such had been the vicissitudes of the war, when England and France made the peace of Amiens (1802), which did not last long.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. The French Revolution breaks out.....1789
2. Opinion in England as to the revolution at first varies very much.
3. France and England go to war.....1793
4. The French Republic is everywhere victorious on land.
5. The English fleet is victorious; but mutinies.....1797
6. Insurrection takes place in Ireland.....1798
Followed by union with England.....1801
7. Napoleon Bonaparte invades Egypt; his fleet destroyed in the battle of the Nile.....1798
Peace of Amiens is concluded.....1802

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What is meant by the French Revolution? What abuses prevailed in the French government? What steps were finally taken to cure these evils?
2. What did the people of England think of the revolution?
3. How did war break out?
4. What conquests were made by the French armies?
5. Name some of the victories gained by the English fleet. Describe the mutinies that now took place in the fleet.
6. What serious events took place in Ireland? Where were the Irish defeated? What great event was next necessary?
7. What great general now became the first man in France? His plans? How was he baffled in Egypt? How were the French driven out of Egypt? The peace of Amiens?

CHAPTER VI.

WAR AGAINST NAPOLEON.

1. **War renewed.**—Napoleon was grown too powerful and too ambitious for the peace of Europe. The treaty of Amiens was soon broken, and war was renewed (1803). Next year, Napoleon, now emperor of France, designed an invasion of England, for which he assembled a mighty armament in the neighbourhood of Boulogne. Gigantic preparations were made in England to meet the invader, when he was called away to fight Austria and Russia, whom he overthrew completely in the great battle of Austerlitz. But an invasion of England was

henceforward rendered impossible by the destruction of the combined fleet of France and Spain at the battle of Trafalgar by Nelson, who was slain. On land Napoleon pursued his victorious career, overthrowing both the Prussians and Russians. Shortly after these victories, Napoleon issued the famous *Berlin Decree*, by which he prohibited all commerce between England and the continent—in short, declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade. In 1807, afraid that the Danish fleet should fall into the hands of Napoleon, our government sent an expedition, which a second time bombarded Copenhagen, and took possession of the fleet.

2. Power of Napoleon.—Napoleon was now supreme in Western Europe. Belgium and Holland, Italy, Switzerland, and the greater part of Germany were under his government; Austria and Prussia were at his feet; Russia was his ally. England alone stood out against him. In France, freedom and all the dreams of the great revolution were forgotten; everything bent to the will of one man, whose ambition was boundless.

3. Napoleon occupies the Peninsula.—Not content with his wonderful success and this unexampled power, the French emperor now formed designs on Portugal and Spain. He sent an army to occupy Lisbon, and then most treacherously seized upon Madrid and the chief fortresses of Spain. The crown of Spain he gave to his brother Joseph. The Spanish nation was furious, and rose against their conquerors, and a terrible war began. England resolved to send help to the people of the Peninsula. Sir Arthur Wellesley, a general who had already overthrown the banded Mahratta chiefs in the battle of Assaye or Assye, landed in Portugal, and defeated the French under Junot at Vimiera (1808). By the Convention of Cintra, the French agreed to evacuate Portugal. Sir John Moore afterwards took the command of the English army, and advanced into Spain, but, finding himself opposed by far superior French armies under Napoleon himself, he retreated, and had to fight the battle of Corunna before he could embark. The English were victorious, but their general was slain (1809).

4. Wellington.—The same year Wellesley resumed the command of our Peninsular army, and, after again driving the French out of Portugal, defeated them at Talavera. But he had to retreat into Portugal before a great French army under Marshal Massena. After repulsing the French at Busaco, he took his stand behind the celebrated fortified lines of Torres

Vedras, and Massena was forced to make a disastrous retreat. But the French armies in Spain were so powerful that the English could make little impression on them till 1812, when Napoleon led his immense host against Russia. The armies in Spain being now more equally matched, Wellington assumed the offensive; he took the great fortresses of Badajos and Ciudad Rodrigo, and defeated the French at Salamanca. Next year (1813), he routed them at Vittoria, clearing them out of the Peninsula and driving them across the Pyrenees. In 1814, invading Southern France, he defeated Soult at Toulouse.

5. Napoleon overthrown and sent to Elba.—The best of Napoleon's soldiers perished in the great invasion of Russia (1812). Next year Prussia and Austria rose in arms: before the end of the year, Napoleon was completely overthrown in the great battle of Leipsic, and then the allies invaded France. Napoleon was forced to abdicate, and was sent to Elba.

6. Waterloo (18th June 1815).—While the allies were assembled at the Congress of Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe, they were startled to hear that Napoleon had left Elba. He was soon on the throne of France again; war was declared against him by the great powers of Europe, and immense armies once more began to march against France. Wellington with a mixed army of English, Germans, Belgians, and Dutch, Blücher with a Prussian army, protected the Belgian frontier. Here Napoleon resolved to attack them before they had time to concentrate. While Ney fought the English at Quatre Bras, he assailed the Prussians at Ligny, and after a desperate struggle defeated them. Wellington on his side repulsed Ney; but hearing that the Prussians had retreated, he retired also to Waterloo, in order not to be separated from his allies. There on the 18th of June he was attacked by Napoleon. The armies were not unequal in point of numbers, Wellington having a little under seventy thousand men, and Napoleon somewhat more than that number; but a large proportion of Wellington's force consisted of Belgian and other foreign soldiers that could not be relied on, while Napoleon was stronger both in cavalry and artillery. Standing in unbroken squares, the English repelled the onset of the French veterans till towards evening, when the Prussians appeared. Napoleon had failed in his favourite plan of crushing his opponents separately. Attacked by both the hostile armies, the French were swept away in headlong rout. Paris was occupied by the allies. Napoleon

gave himself up to the English, and was sent to St Helena, where he died in 1821.

7. *War with America (1812-1815).*—In the meantime, we were involved also in war with America, which arose out of certain disputes as to our rights at sea. The fortune of the war was variable. The Americans failed in their invasions of Canada, while the English were disagreeably surprised to find their frigates beaten by those of America. We were successful in an attack on Washington, but the veterans of the Peninsula met with a disastrous repulse before New Orleans. Peace was at last arranged, leaving things as they had been before the war.

8. *After the War.*—The affairs of Europe were settled at the peace of Vienna, by which England retained possession of Malta, Cape Colony, the Mauritius, and other important places. She had won a lofty rank among the nations, but the cost had been enormous. During more than twenty years of almost continuous fighting she had strained her resources to the uttermost, bearing an enormous taxation, and incurring a debt of more than £800,000,000, for which an oppressive taxation still required to be imposed. Corn had fearfully risen in price during the war, and the high price was kept up afterwards by a corn-law. Grievous distress everywhere prevailed; multitudes of working people were out of employment, and were either starving or pauperised. All attempts at reform were suppressed by the government. A peaceable meeting at Manchester was charged by a troop of hussars, many being wounded.

9. *Death of King George III. (1820).*—For some years the king had been insane, the Prince of Wales, afterwards George IV., acting as regent. At this period the royal family was very unpopular, owing to the folly and extravagance of many of its members. An eminent exception to this unpopularity was the Princess Charlotte, who was a great favourite, and whose early death was deeply lamented. George III. himself died in 1820, after a reign of sixty years, the longest in the history of England. The country had experienced marvellous changes and varieties of fortune during that period. At the beginning of the reign, England had become absolute mistress of the seas, and she was supreme in North America. Through the folly of her government she lost great part of her empire in America; but she built up a second empire, far more wonderful, in India, and the settlements in Australia formed the humble beginning of a third in the Southern Seas. In Europe she fought a war of

twenty-two years' duration, and incurred gigantic burdens under which any other nation would have sunk; yet in spite of them all, her industrial prosperity continued to increase, and to astonish the world.

SUMMARY.

Paragraph

1. War is renewed.....1803
 Napoleon projects the invasion of England.....1804
 The French are defeated at Trafalgar.....1805
2. Napoleon is supreme in Western Europe.
3. He seizes Spain and Portugal.....1808
4. Wellington drives the French out of Spain.....1808-1813
5. Napoleon is overthrown at Leipzig.....1813
 The allies invade France, and send Napoleon to Elba.....1814
6. Napoleon is finally defeated at Waterloo.....1815
7. A war of varying fortune is carried on with America.....1812-1815
8. Peace is settled at Vienna.....1815
9. George III. dies after a reign of sixty years.....1820

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

1. What great project was now entertained by Napoleon? How was it hindered, and then rendered impossible?
2. Describe the power of Napoleon.
3. What great countries did Napoleon next seize?
4. Who received the permanent command of the English armies? Name some of the battles in the Peninsula?
5. What terrible disaster had crippled Napoleon's power? Elba?
6. What happened during the Congress of Vienna? Describe the battle of Waterloo.
7. The cause of the war with the United States? Its nature?
8. What was done at the Peace of Vienna? What possessions did we retain by it? How was England affected by the war?
9. The state of the king's mind? Why was the royal family so unpopular? Describe the great changes of this reign.

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